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ABSTRACT

The journal includes 12 papers on the topic of preservice education and leadership training in deaf education. Articles focus on aspects of administration and supervision, application of theory to practice, and research perspectives. The following articles are included: "An Interview with Dr. Herman Goldberg, Executive Director of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services" (B. Bogatz); "A Situational Behavioral Model for Analyzing and Improving Administrative Effectiveness in Programs and Schools for the Deaf" (T. Landers); "Conflict: Cure or Curse?" (W. Marshall and M. Hanson); "Increasing the Professional Effectiveness of Instructional Supervisors in Deaf Education" (F. Duffy); "Preparing Professionals in Special Education Administration at Gallaudet College" (W. Marshall and E. Skinski); "Training the Hearing-Impaired Student Teacher for the 'Hearing Classroom': Problems and Solutions" (D. Martin); "Preparing Teachers of Multihandicapped Hearing Impaired Students" (T. Jones and E. Holzhauer): "The Counseling Laboratory: A Training, Service, and Research Model" (M. Danek and F. White); "Toward Greater Effectiveness in Deaf Education--An Applied Science View" (M. Futrell); "An Investigation of the Criterion-Related Validity of the SAT-HI Reading Comprehension Subtest for Deaf Students" (C. LaSasso and B. Davey); "Q-Sort Methodology--A Technique for Identifying Competencies Needed by Teachers of the Hearing Impaired" (M. Sass); and "The Family Environment and the Self-Esteem of the Deaf Child" (S. Guterman). (CL)

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Directions

Gallaudet College

Preservice Education and Leadership Training

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Boris E. Bogatz
Guest Editor

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Dr. Barry MacNamara of Hofstra University was second author of "The Special Education Unit Model at the Lexington School for the Deaf," an article which appeared in Volume 3, No. 2 of *Directions*. He did not receive proper credit in that issue. We regret the error.

The editors.

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Purpose

Directions, a publication of Gallaudet College, provides professionals in the field of deafness with information important to the education and welfare of deaf people. *Directions* is a vehicle for disseminating innovative ideas, important papers, significant experience, and validated research findings, primarily originating on Kendall Green but interesting to the profession at large. It will update significant progress in academic studies, professional development, and research areas. The goals of the publication are to: (1) foster the continuing development of theory and practice, and (2) encourage extensive and thorough discussion of problems related to and drawn from such innovation.

Information for Authors

Each issue of *Directions* deals with a single topic identified as significant to the profession at large. *Directions* issues generally are planned by editors or guest editors many months in advance, and most of the articles are solicited from authors who have published original work on the topic. However, from time to time the journal solicits manuscripts on a particular topic from individuals outside the College community, either directly or through a call for papers. Manuscripts and editorial correspondence should be sent to Doin E. Hicks, Editor, *Directions*, Gallaudet College, Washington, D.C. 20002.

Manuscripts

For consideration for publication, an original manuscript and two copies must be submitted to the editor. Manuscripts must conform to standards set in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, current edition, with respect to such features as:

- quality of paper (white bond only; no colors; no erasable paper)
- margins (38 mm at top and on left; 25 mm on right, i.e. 1½" & 1")
- abstract (a summary of the article, under 200 words)
- acknowledgments (including author's current affiliation, supporting grants, etc.)
- pagination, headings, figures, tables, and references.

Policy

Manuscripts are reviewed on the basis of relevance of the article to the theme of the issue, acceptability of illustrations, accuracy in references, and completeness in content. Authors should make every effort to avoid the use of sexist terminology. Guidelines for the use of non-sexist language are available from the American Psychological Association, and from the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), 1111 Kenyon Road, Urbana, Illinois.

The author is responsible for all statements made in the work, including changes made by the copy editor unless the author alters those changes at the time the manuscript is returned to the author for review and publication approval. The editor receives manuscripts with the understanding that they are not being considered for publication by another journal. Although rejected manuscripts will usually be returned to the author, *Directions* is not responsible for loss. Accepted manuscripts become the property of *Directions*. They may not be published elsewhere without written permission of the editors.

In Memoriam

Clarence M. Williams
Co-Editor, Directions
1918–1983

Clarence M. Williams, Ed.D., died on February 9, 1983, at the age of 64. Dr. Williams was recuperating from heart surgery at the Washington Hospital Center, Washington, D.C., at the time of his death.

Dr. Williams held degrees from Western Michigan University and Michigan State University. He taught in public schools and at the University of Rochester, achieving the rank of professor of psychology in 1968. He was widely recognized for his scholarly attainments in research and teaching.

In 1973, Dr. Williams came to Gallaudet College where he served as Associate Dean for Research (1973-1978) and also as a professor in the Department of Education. From 1978 until the time of his death, his primary responsibility at Gallaudet was that of Coordinator of Faculty and Graduate Student Research.

Dr. Williams' own field of study was visual cognition. He served as founder and national director of the International Visual Literacy Association. He was an active member of many organizations, including the Board of Directors of the Gallaudet College Press, *dsh Abstracts*, the *Journal of Visual and Verbal Languaging*, and the Executive Committee on the Special Interest Group on Deafness of the American Educational Research Association. He also was a fellow in the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Phi Delta Kappa, Psi Chi, the Society for Study of Technology in Education (which he founded in 1967), and the Educational Writers Association.

Dr. Williams was Gallaudet's first scientist-administrator to coordinate all research projects and programs taking place outside of the academic departments. During his early years at Gallaudet College, he coordinated and fostered research through the formulation of a Research Committee. This committee developed a series of wide-ranging discussions about the scope, aims, and roles of research at Gallaudet College and about deafness research nationally and internationally. Under his leadership, the Research Committee designed a series of Gallaudet-sponsored symposia in 1975-1976 on deafness research in three areas of concern: social and cultural orientation, language and communication, and educational development. These areas are virtually the same as the three study centers that ultimately made up the functioning units of the Gallaudet Research Institute.

Directions was Dr. Williams' brainchild and he, more than anyone else, has been responsible for its development. His ideas for topical issues and his tireless work as co-editor provided the leadership for its current level of acceptance.

The campus of Gallaudet College and the profession of deaf education are deeply indebted to Dr. Williams for providing a broad perspective of deafness research. We shall all miss him greatly, and we will think of him often as we come across daily his many contributions to deafness research. We are all a little wiser and a little happier for having had the privilege of working with Dr. Williams. His keen mind, sharp wit, and cooperative attitude will forever serve as a model for us all.

Introduction

Boris E. Bogatz

Few would disagree that the circumstances through which and around which services to handicapped children are provided have changed significantly over the last 15 to 20 years. Ever-increasing federal government support has served to enhance and accelerate services to a degree considered unrealistic just a few years ago. The advent of Public Law 94-142 and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 were legislative milestones which more than anything else in recent history have impacted on the development of services to all handicapped children, in almost all settings, and usually without regard to the degree or severity of the handicapping condition. The last decade could be characterized as one of significant change, as evidenced by the turbulent growth of services, the radical changes in the ways in which services are provided, the location in which those services are offered, and the training of personnel who are involved. More recently, however, special education, along with a variety of other social services and rehabilitation programs, has become the target of significant reductions in federal support.

The role of the federal government has had a profound impact on special education. Also characterized by change, the federal agency for special education, originally the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH), more recently was entitled the Office of Special Education. It is currently known as Special Education Programs of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS).

The interview with Dr. Herman Goldberg, the Executive Administrator of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services at the Department of Education, will be of interest to all of us. Dr. Goldberg shares his perceptions of the current situation within the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services related to such far-reaching issues as the New Federalism and its impact on the hearing impaired; Public Law 94-142 regulations; the Interagency Committee on Rural Education and its impact on services to low incidence populations, such as the hearing impaired; Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board; the enhancement of excellence and the promotion of effective learning; the future role of state schools for the deaf; and other related topics.

Gallaudet College has been recognized for many years as a primary force in the education and training of education leaders to serve the hearing impaired of the United States. The School of Education and Human Services (SEHS), created some four years ago as a part of the reorganization of the college, now encompasses six departments — Administration, Education, Counseling, Educational Technology, Educational Foundations and Research, and Physical Education. Programs within these departments are all vitally concerned with issues related to the preservice education of teachers, supervisors, counselors, and related leadership personnel.

The Department of Administration offers a doctoral level leadership training program in special education administration and a training program for supervisors of special education. The reader's attention is directed to the article "Preparing Professionals in Special Education Administration," by Dr. Edmond Skinski and Dr. William J. A. Marshall, which clearly defines the program philosophy for leadership training at Gallaudet College. Note also the article entitled "Increasing the Professional Effectiveness of Instructional Supervisors in Deaf Education," by Dr. Francis M. Duffy, which delineates the issues related to the newly emerging program in supervision for special education at Gallaudet College. Definitely and critically related to the training of leadership personnel are the issues addressed in "A Situational Behavioral Model for Analyzing and Improving Administrative Effectiveness in Programs and Schools for the Deaf," by Dr. Thomas J. Landers, Dean of the School of Education and Human Services; and in "Conflict: Cure or Curse," by Dr. Marshall and Dr. Marjorie K. Hanson.

One of the larger and major training programs of the School of Education and Human Services is found in the Department of Education. In this department, teachers are trained at the master's level to work with hearing-impaired as well as multihandicapped hearing-impaired students. The article by Dr. Tom Jones discusses how teachers are trained to work with multihandicapped hearing-impaired students. The Department of Education recently initiated a unique and creative training program in which hearing-impaired students are trained at the baccalaureate level to be fully certified as teachers in regular classrooms. The article by Dr. David Martin, a member of the Department of Education, explains this exciting innovation.

The Counseling Department within SEHS houses two major programs — rehabilitation counseling and school counseling. Recently the department initiated a counseling laboratory for the purpose of providing realistic practica opportunities for counselor trainees. For more information related to this unique and very worthwhile facility, the reader is directed to the article by Dr. Marita Danek and Dr. Fran White, "The Counseling Laboratory: A Training, Service, and Research Model."

"An Investigation of Criterion-Related Validity of the SAT-HI Reading Comprehension Subtest for Deaf Students," by Dr. Carol LaSasso and Dr. Beth Davey, reports a very important finding and should be carefully noted as to its implications on our ability to predict reading success of deaf students. Dr. Marilyn Sass relates an interesting application of a traditional research methodology in her article entitled "Q Methodology—A Technique for Identifying Competencies Needed by Teachers of the Hearing Impaired." "The Family Environment and Self-Esteem of the Deaf Child," by Dr. Stanley Guterman, proposes a new perspective on research. Finally, the article by Dr. Mynga Futrell entitled, "Toward Greater Effectiveness in Deaf Education—An Applied Science View," presents a perspective on the efficacy of services to hearing-impaired children which I think will be of interest to all of us.

An Interview with Dr. Herman Goldberg, Executive Director of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services

Boris E. Bogatz

Editor's Note: Dr. Herman Goldberg has long been recognized as a distinguished leader in both general and special education. He assumed the position of Executive Administrator of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services in 1982. Dr. Goldberg is a most articulate spokesman for that agency in a time when special education services are undergoing significant fiscal and programmatic challenges. His career is most impressive; it includes services and commitments to all levels of education from local to state to national. He has published widely, lectured throughout the world, and received many awards and honors. He is an adept professional and a warm and caring human being.

Directions invited Dr. Boris Bogatz, Assistant Dean for Technical Services, School of Education and Human Services, to talk to Dr. Goldberg about Goldberg's views on special education. Dr. Bogatz met with Dr. Goldberg on two occasions, November 10, 1982, and again on January 12, 1983. The second session was deemed necessary because of the dynamic impact of the federal presence on special education services and our desire to present the most current material possible.

We at *Directions* extend our thanks to Dr. Goldberg for having taken the time necessary to respond to the questions contained in this interview and for candidly presenting the position of the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS), U.S. Office of Education.

Goldberg: As a prelude to our discussion, it is important to note that we are close to the time when there could be some changes in regulations for Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act. The Notice of Proposed Rule-Making (NPRM) published in the *Federal Register* on August 4, 1982, brought such a heavy negative reaction that Secretary Bell, in a November 3 *Federal Register* notice, withdrew six specific sections from the August 4 proposal. Following a review of the more than 22,000 comments from the public a new NPRM will be published, and a new period of public comment will begin. The new set of comments will then be reviewed, and a final regulation may possibly be ready for publication by late summer or early fall 1983. Some items I comment on may yet be tentative; they are only hunches, intuition, or impressions as to how the final regulations might turn out, all subject, of course, to final decisions by Secretary Bell.

Bogatz: *That's a perfectly acceptable understanding. Why don't we begin with the issue of New Federalism, which is on everybody's mind today. Would you comment on that from your perspective? What is it, and what might be its potential impact on the deaf community?*

Goldberg: When the current administration came into office two years ago, its major concern, and the goal toward which it wished the staff to work, was identified as the New Federalism. The New Federalism is a thrust that recognizes that state and local governments should be trusted by the federal bureaucracy to a far greater degree than has been true in the past. Trust implies that the state and local education agencies know what to do, how to do it, and will do it in a fair way, ensuring a square deal for handicapped children and their parents.

One of the first acts of the new administration was to draw up a list of federal regulations that were too long and too involved, that went beyond the statutes and stated congressional intent, and that imposed the need to submit data or to keep records—all items on which Congress was silent. Public Law 94-142 was high up on that list. And so, early in March of 1981, I began, as Acting Assistant Secretary of OSERS, to suggest ways in which the current regulations could be trimmed, especially in the areas of reduction of paper work, duplication of effort, and the intrusiveness of the federal government in state and local affairs.

The New Federalism, basically, was a plan to remind America that the governance of education was not based in Washington. It featured an economic recovery program in which all federal programs, including education, were declared not immune from planned requests for spending reductions designed to reduce inflation by one or two points. It was felt that if the general economic picture of the country could be improved, it would provide a way in which there would be more money for state and local school systems to support education. As a result, supplies and equipment could be purchased at lower prices, and those savings, plus lower utility costs for heating and air conditioning schools, would put more money in the hands of school administrators to run their schools. It was recognized that as prices kept rising, fewer dollars remained for hiring, retaining, and rewarding top-notch teachers. The administration wants all of us to join in to meet the goal of reduced inflation. That's part of the New Federalism.

The third part of the New Federalism is related to the president's most recent initiatives calling for cooperation with the private sector and a broader thrust for volunteerism. One of the president's initiatives that makes excellent sense is to look to the private sector for resources

"I do not sense that the low-incidence handicaps are going to suffer."

beyond those now available to school systems, colleges, and universities. Many school administrators see the corporate entity as being more than an economic body, and they work hard at building closer relationships with business and industry. They help the private sector realize that it has a vital role to fulfill in the improvement of communities, including its schools and colleges. The private sector is contributing a part of its financial resources for the public good; it can bring new meaning to the concept of enlightened self-interest. Such close involvement with education administrators is a demonstration of business citizenship at its best. So there are three parts to the New Federalism: the economic recovery program, the reduction of intrusiveness into other jurisdictions, and the closer cooperation with the private sector and with volunteerism. We must tap the vast resources of people in America who are able and willing, with time, energy, and skill, to help us through their volunteer efforts. As for the impact on programs for the hearing impaired, I do believe that they would go along with the same thrusts for all of education.

Bogatz: *That was exactly what I was looking for. It's fairly evident that low-incidence groups like the hearing impaired are the first to really feel the negative impact of any reduction in support at the federal level. In that sense, I'm wondering whether you see any greater impact on the hearing-impaired community and its programs that one might anticipate on other areas of special education?*

Goldberg: Quite the contrary. I feel that the General Accounting Office (GAO), which is Congress's watchdog agency, has been putting the thrust in an entirely different area. In the two years I have been in this office, the GAO has indeed raised some issues about children identified as having specific learning disabilities (so-called SLDs or LDs) or as having a speech disorder that required speech therapy, language training, etc. The thrust of the GAO's report seemed to indicate that the numbers of children in the child count for both LD and speech impaired are too large. I've heard nothing to indicate a reduction in services to the hearing impaired, the visually impaired, the orthopedically handicapped, or the multiply handicapped. I do not sense that the low-incidence handicaps are going to suffer.

Bogatz: *Now, let me go back for a moment. You indicated in defining and describing the New Federalism that Public Law 94-142 and its regu-*

"The federal government. . .does not have the wisdom to know more than state and local educators know."

lations were right up at the top of the administration's target list of planned reductions in federal support. As you are very much aware, the public reaction to the attempted reduction of those particular regs was very well articulated and certainly broad based. Could you comment on the status of the 94-142 regulations from a general perspective and perhaps add a comment on each of the six areas that were targeted to be withdrawn?

Goldberg: Perhaps if leaders of organizations, individual parents, and all others interested in the best possible education for handicapped children and youth would have reread the regulations that came out in 1977, they would not have been surprised at the suggested changes. By that I mean that the preamble of the 1977 regs sets forth very clearly that because 94-142 charted many new directions, both the Congress that authored the bill and the constituent groups that helped develop the regulations recognized that changes might have to be forthcoming. The preamble is very specific. We did our best in our briefing papers to alert people to the possibility of changes, yet I guess many people were comfortable with what they knew and uncomfortable with what they weren't sure was coming out. We did in many ways provide the flexibility that state and local agencies wanted. One was to change from binding to nonbinding guidelines in several parts of the regs.

If you look carefully at the regulations proposed on August 4, you will note that directly following the sections that pertain to the most intricate kinds of relationships between school, parent, pupil, agencies, etc., nonbinding guidelines offer advice. Following the New Federalism, the new regs remove the strong federal finger on the shoulder of state and local people. These changes say what we feel constitutes good practice, but they don't force you to follow federal suggestions. Education is a state and local function. The federal government, while it stands as a protector of due process and civil rights for handicapped children, does not have the wisdom to know more than state and local educators know.

The overwhelming feelings of those who wrote to us and those who appeared at the public hearings were born of fear that some of the gains might be reduced. At the same time, we were trying to point out that the changes were designed to give authorities in these other jurisdictions the right to make more of the decisions. It turns out that in close to 90% of the cases, the states had provisions in force which were as strong as if not stronger than the federal ones. In some cases, constituents complained that the state regulations were tougher than the federal ones. In fact, in one of the statewide meetings at which I spoke, a question from the floor was directed at how the educators of that state could get the state regulations reduced to manageable size and thrust so that they wouldn't be tougher than the federal regulations. Needless to say I directed that question to the state authorities.

Bogatz: *Could you share your perspective on the status of each of the six regulations in question?*

Goldberg: In regard to your questions on the specific areas that have been withdrawn, let me talk first about the one related to parental consent prior to evaluation or initial placement. The administration is sympathetic to family involvement in the education of all children, naturally. The statute we are talking about, PL 94-142, does not contain any expressed requirement for parental consent prior to initial evaluation or initial placement in special education. The kind of relationship that the school district develops with the parents would suggest that any understanding superintendent, school principal, or supervisor of special education would want not only to build but to strengthen the bond between home and school so that all folks would be working toward the same goals. In our survey, 84% of the states currently require parental consent prior to evaluation, either through state law or through regulations. We are now finding a larger number of parents who have had training, formal coursework as well as informal opportunities for guided observations of groups of handicapped children, coming forth with their knowledge of the field. I have called for a reduction in what sometimes is known as professional *hubris*, a term that describes heated exchanges between parent and professional that can develop into arrogance and a feeling that one of the parties knows it all as compared with the other. We all have to work toward opening our arms to parents who are more well informed than parents of previous decades. Rather than treating a knowledgeable parent as a rival, someone to be challenged by the staff members of the school system, a knowledgeable parent should be treated as an equal partner in the educational planning process. The parent's viewpoint is based on the knowledge gleaned from living with the child all the time. Certainly, the parent knows the child better than any school person could.

So going back to that earlier, highly important relationship of trust, parents and schools working together is a much more preferable situation than parent vs. school or school vs. parent. It is a condition

"I have always felt a little chagrined that the drafters of PL 94-142 did not find a better term than least restrictive environment."

well worthy of being sought wherever possible.

Now, least restrictive environment. I have always felt a little chagrined that the drafters of PL 94-142 did not find a better term than *least restrictive environment.* I have been talking for some time about how it would have been more productive had that goal been identified as the *most positive* environment rather than the *least restrictive.* We also recognize that both terms, *least* and *most,* leave a lot to be desired in legislation. What is least? What is most? How do you measure that? Mainstreaming, or placing handicapped children in regular schools with children without handicaps, caused a good deal of difficulty in our hearings. Many people felt that principals and teachers would return children to segregated settings in a special class or a special school because of some disruption, some noise, some classroom event that appeared to interfere with the right of the other children in the room to learn. We tried to analyze what those things were. A squealing hearing aid that needs adjustment might be a disruption but certainly not grounds for returning a hearing-impaired youngster to a different setting. Other examples might be sounds coming from an electronic conversation board used by children with severe speech and language disorders; crutches leaning up against a chair or the wall; and a wheelchair that has to be maneuvered into a desk space, a work table, or a setting where a group of children are working. Those kinds of aids to the handicapped, either when they're in good working order or in need of repair, can bring fear to a teacher or principal that someone might trip, someone might get hurt. Who will pay the insurance costs? What's going to happen to discipline? I think these things were ill-founded, yet some people were concerned about them.

As far as the more difficult disciplinary situations, a handicapped child, in some cases, needs to be disciplined the same way as any other child. The presence of mechanical aids (e.g., a wheelchair) does not make that child automatically immune from careful scrutiny by teachers and guidance counselors. When suspension or exclusion from school is under consideration, or when dealing with the police, being handicapped does not free that child from complicity if the child actually is heavily involved in causing disruption in the room or in the school. So on one side we had school administrators and school board members who favored a careful look at suspensions and exclusions based on specific acts of discipline that could not be condoned, and on the other side, large numbers of people who viewed that proposed change in the regs as a signal to remove many handicapped children from the mainstreamed classes as a punishment for something that was not really related to their handicaps. We were trying to clear that situation up. It apparently was misunderstood by many people.

Bogatz: *I share your reaction to the term* least restrictive environment. *At Gallaudet we coined an alternative*—most enabling environment. *It's a much more positive way of stating the same thing. May I, however, tag a question onto the least restrictive environment concern? The notion of least restrictive environment as contained in Public Law 94-142 has been a problem for the deaf community. While the philosophical position is generally acceptable, the very special needs of deaf youngsters frequently require that they have a setting and array of special support services that are beyond the ability of most public schools to provide. Placing these youngsters in residential school services may be at odds with the intent of least restrictive environment. Do you have any feelings about the special needs of hearing-impaired youngsters in that regard?*

Goldberg: I believe that assigning hard-of-hearing and deaf children to regular classrooms where the support services are not yet in place, are too few in number, or are not supportive at the highest possible level, presents difficulties that impede education. Also it is important to consider the feelings of some parents who, for a variety of reasons, wish to have their deaf child in a mainstream situation. Perhaps it is in the nature of true or false parental pride to be able to say to neighbors, friends, and relatives, "My child doesn't go to a school for the deaf. My child goes to a regular school. He is with kids who hear; he has instruction in communication; and there is an itinerant teacher who comes in and helps him several times a week. He seems to be having a good time with his classmates, and he enjoys his health and physical education periods, shooting baskets in the school yard or the gym, and other activities, and I think he's learning."

On the other hand, it is possible that placement in a regular education setting may not yield the progress that can be noted in a different setting where the specialists are there all the time. The question to me seems to be, What's in it for the child? Not for the parents. Not for one faction or another faction. Not for one group still clamoring for use of a strictly oral method, another for strictly manual, and still others talking about combined methods and total communication. In the long haul what really benefits the deaf child

"Should the schools provide the dollars for the related services as well as the educational services? I think not."

the most is teaching that child how to cope in the world—the deaf world and the hearing world.

What is the proper preparation during the growing up years to ensure that ability to cope and to contribute to societal success? After all, parents won't be there forever and the child must be assisted in gaining those skills and those understandings that will enable success to come forward. I would say in some unusual cases (i.e., the Rowley case), very early and intensive preparation and instruction in speech, lipreading, and communication, combined with the successful use of a hearing aid, allows bright children to succeed in a regular setting. In the Rowley case the court decided that the school district was not to be responsible for a sign language interpreter to enhance what already was a successful program into a highly successful productive effort for the child. The court was saying to us that the school district had an obligation to do what it could in a least restrictive environment, but did not have to provide such additional and very expensive services as to maximize that success.

Bogatz: *Would you like to comment on any other of the six regs?*

Goldberg: Yes. I want to comment now on timelines for the development of the individualized educational plan (IEP). The requirement that the IEP be written within thirty days of the date of the child's evaluation was an item of great concern to parents. Many parents wrote to us or gave oral testimony in the public hearings.

In our proposal we used the word *reasonable*. We felt that the states could establish reasonable timelines for conducting the IEP meeting and assigning placement. Reasonable timelines could take into account the unique circumstances in each state. We felt that this was more likely to be effective than having a single set of federally mandated timelines.

Some parts of our country have a ready and full supply of the qualified personnel—psychologists, physicians, audiologists, school social workers, and other specialists—required to make the diagnosis to determine eligibility. In other parts of our nation, that ready supply of specialists may not be available. So when we talk about flexibility in individual circumstances, we recognize that in parts of some states more than thirty days might be needed. We felt this was a reasonable understanding of the fact that our country is diversified and that all the needed professional talent is not bunched up in every single school district in the United States. Some had to be booked on an itinerant basis. Others had to come on a schedule that extended the time beyond thirty days. Thirty days, then, seemed to be an arbitrary directive which did not take into account the diversity and make-up of the 16,000 school districts in the nation or their ability to comply.

Bogatz: *You mentioned the uneven availability of qualified evaluation and related personnel. One of the six regs deals with the membership of the program committee or IEP team.*

Goldberg: States have existing licensing and certification procedures. States and universities have identified the minimum number of professional-preparation courses required to make professional judgments and recommendations on appropriate education placement.

It is important to have evaluation personnel at the meeting regarding the initial evaluation of a child suspected of having a handicap. But for the federal government to consider its judgment as better than all of the states is something that has caused concern. That is why nonbinding guidelines were preferred over directives.

I can recall serving as a local superintendent of schools and entering into agreements with the department of health and voluntary agencies. These agencies provided related services such as student diagnosis, ongoing evaluation, and treatment for children needing special education. When PL 94-142 was passed, many school people reported that those agencies, admittedly hard pressed for funds, too, stopped providing services.

I have made the point that FAPE (free appropriate public education) did not say in the statute free appropriate public *school* education. The statute did not in so many words force the schools to take on the financial obligations of those related health and diagnostic services that traditionally came from agencies outside the school.

So the question comes down to this: Should the schools provide the dollars for the related services as well as the educational services? I think not. Those services can be provided through interagency agreements with municipal, county, and state authorities under the leadership, in most cases, of the governor of the state. Only the governor has the mechanism available to involve the leaders of the various state agencies—health, education, youth board, crippled children's services, commission for the blind, division of vocational rehabilitation, etc. These state leaders, it seems to me, could find a way to commit resources on a cooperative basis so that school people are not overburdened at a time when support for education is being challenged as never before.

> **“There are certain values that come from [rural] settings where the pupil-teacher ratio is smaller and teachers are committed to teaching.”**

Bogatz: *I understand that you have been very active on the Interagency Committee on Rural Education. I would like to know what your perspective is on education in rural settings. I am interested particularly in how the committee views the provision of services to the hearing impaired. Historically, providing reasonable services in very rural settings is even more difficult because of the very low incidence of this population.*

Goldberg: We're still working on that issue but I do not hesitate to point out that rural education people are very proud of what they can do for their students. We do know that low-incidence handicapping conditions such as hearing impairment require itinerant services and services from other agencies. Certainly there should be follow-up through state and local authorities to the fullest possible extent so that a child in a rural area with certain needs is not denied those services because of the accident of residence. Residents in rural areas are very proud of the smallness of their jurisdictions. They tend to say small is beautiful, small is good. There are certain values that come from settings where the pupil-teacher ratio is smaller and teachers are committed to teaching.

I recall one rural setting where I had an opportunity to talk with a group of teachers. One participant, in a stroke of levity, asked another participant for his definition of the word *rural.* The answer given was: rural is when it's more than 50 miles between home and McDonald's. Now, whether it's more than 50 miles between the location of needed services for a low-incidence handicapped child and where the child lives, I can't tell. But even if that is the distance, the services should be provided. I hope the Interagency Committee comes up with such recommendations that will have an impact on providing such services.

Bogatz: *Another area that I know you've been very close to and very concerned with is the whole issue of barriers and access to services and programs. What is the position of the Department of Education relative to architectural, transportation, and communication barriers?*

Goldberg: The Department of Education has one delegate to the 12-person Architectural and Transportation Barriers Compliance Board (ATBCB). The board is made up of federal executives and delegates from the public at large. Construction, repairs, the status of entrances and exits of buildings, the width of corridors, the location and height of telephones (to accommodate the swing of a wheelchair so that a handicapped person can make a telephone call in a public area), the provision of elevators, the frequency of transit vehicles with the proper facilities for lifts, etc., have all been on the agenda of the board. The position of the board has been that adequate access in public facilities ought to be made available even at this time of great economic pinch.

Bogatz: *The organization of OSERS, as I understand it, includes three units—Special Education Programs, Rehabilitation Services Administration, and the National Institute for Handicapped Research. A major intent of that organizational framework is, I believe, to combine resources, energies, and administrative procedures for the betterment of services in general. Has it accomplished that in your opinion?*

Goldberg: I think many advances have been made through the Department of Education Reorganization Act, which required the three separate components to be combined into one administrative unit.

The main purpose for the merger was to prevent overlap, to provide for crosscutting considerations, to prevent duplication, and to have the benefits of research and program insight from one area made more readily available to the others. We do work together on these crosscutting issues in the field of research and service, and more needs to be done.

There are, of course, services for the hearing impaired in Special Education Programs, in Rehabilitation, and in the National Institute for Handicapped Research. Our goal has been, and we have had a number of meetings on this, to bring staff together and to learn more from each other so one group can benefit from the other. We invite staff members from each of the three components to decision meetings on granting awards to the other components so that all are kept informed of the kinds of awards that are being made. We've only been at this now for three years, since the Department of Education Reorganization Act was passed on October 17, 1979. The department wasn't actually formed until the spring of the following year, so we've been in business fewer than three years. Hence, I think it will take a little longer for services like the Rehabilitation Services Administration (which has been in existence for 60 years), Special Education Programs (formerly the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped), and the National Institute for Handicapped Research to blend appropriately and begin to provide for that continuum of understanding and service we feel is necessary from preschool through adult life.

We think it is very important because handicapped children, in many

"Every child needs to go home from school every day liking himself or herself a little better."

cases, grow up to be handicapped youths and handicapped adults. In some cases one would hope that all the medical and educational treatment and special services would render the handicapped child a nonhandicapped adult. But reality tells us that handicapped adults frequently need additional services. Rehabilitation personnel have to understand what school people have done with handicapped children so that the service flows from one agency to the other rather than ending abruptly at stated age limits. So we believe, symbolically and practically, that the OSERS concept was one that the Congress viewed as a mechanism for providing this continuum of service.

Bogatz: *Might that also be viewed on the federal level as an example of the interagency coordination that you were suggesting is so important?*

Goldberg: It is the clearest form of interagency cooperation since the law mandates it. It does not become a voluntary effort that might depend upon circumstances, personalities, or the events of the moment among a group of agencies.

Bogatz: *A major goal of the Department of Education is the enhancement of excellence and the promotion of effective learning. I would assume that is also a major goal at OSERS and other agencies within the department. How are the Department of Education and OSERS going about implementing services to meet that goal?*

Goldberg: Secretary Bell is very interested in having his top staff devote time, energy, and insight into ways in which they can press forward with the federal goal for improved excellence in education. This can be done through monitoring visitations and conducting national, state, and regional conferences where federal officials have an opportunity to talk to school leaders and school board members about the great importance of improving learning through improving the excellence of student and teacher effort. Secretary Bell has talked with the National School Boards Association and with superintendents. We fully expect that the final report of his National Commission on Excellence will be made public in the spring of 1983. Once again, intrusiveness, NO! Advice, nudging, explanation, YES!

We have no power to force a federally determined thrust on the agenda of the schools. But we hope to point out, through education, through example, and through illustration, that the restoration of the goal of excellence in teaching and learning with accountability should be at the top of everyone's list. Secretary Bell intends that all of us contribute to the effort to make this a national first priority.

Bogatz: *Ed Sontag has recently indicated one of the ways in which excellence will be pursued is through the training of teachers. As I understand it, the thrust is going to shift from a great deal of emphasis on inservice training for teachers and graduate-level training support for researchers to a renewed emphasis on preservice training for teachers. Do you have any comments on that initiative?*

Goldberg: Yes, the Department of Education has recognized that problem. In a recent presentation to university personnel responsible for teacher education for special education, it was pointed out that "a major criticism of the federal discretionary training program is that support for the core leadership of the profession—doctoral-level researchers, specialists, administrators, and teacher trainers—had been expanding more rapidly than the preparation of special education teachers." At that meeting, it was announced that 85% of the funds available for training in FY 1983 would be used for the preservice training of personnel.

Teaching handicapped children, when it's done right, can be a very tiring, time-consuming, enervating kind of life. You give of yourself every minute when you are with the children. Teachers need to follow up with parents and to keep preparing original material when commercial suppliers cannot or have not provided many of the things that teachers need.

Those kinds of skills can develop through preservice and inservice training. It's a question of leadership and it's a question of example. Every child needs to go home from school every day liking himself or herself a little better. This is accomplished when the teacher recognizes the child's production of excellent work and when the work is understood and recognized by the parents, friends, relatives, and neighbors, who see progress. It is also accomplished when a child goes home each day with a reassuring word from the teacher that he or she is on the right track.

I remember a "Miss Peach" cartoon from some time ago in which two characters were talking about school. One said to the other, "What do you get in school?" and the other one answered, "Every day you get teachers." How important that is—there is no poet, there is no sculptor, there is no carpenter, there is no plumber, there is no astronaut, there is no physician, there is no social worker, and there is no religious leader in the classroom. *There is a teacher there—every day.* That combination of teacher and students working together with a goal of excellence before them can bring about success if all parties to the plan really work at it.

Bogatz: *Switching back now to the role of the states in this endeavor, Executive Order 12372—Intragovernmental Review of Federal Programs—promises to have a major impact on the role of the states relative to the kinds of projects that the federal government is thinking about instituting. Could you comment on that?*

Goldberg: Yes. We are in that particular work effort at the present time. The Executive Order 12372 of July 14 states part of the president's plan to give state and local jurisdictions more to say about what federal plans are for legislation and programming.

A question that may come up is: Is state and local advice binding on the federal government? The department is working on many important details. While the goals and the impact cannot be described specifically, program by program, at this time, there is a very intensive desire to seek out early state and local opinion on federal plans.

Bogatz: *One final question related to the role of the state schools for the deaf and for other low-incidence youngsters. I'm sure you realize that issues like least restrictive environment, mainstreaming, and so on, have had a significant impact on, and indeed posed a threat to, the very existence of state schools and the special services they provide. As public schools begin serving more and more special-needs youngsters, the demand for those services from the state-school level obviously will decrease. Do you see a viable role for state-school services?*

Goldberg: I wish to state emphatically that I believe there will always be a need for state-supported and/or operated schools for children needing such services. We do know that with increasing programs in day school settings, both in special classes and special schools within local education agencies as well as in alternative placements on a mainstream basis in regular grades, that declining enrollment in state-operated or state-supported schools is real.

At one of our public hearings on PL 94-142, the executive director of a residential school in an eastern state testified that, while it might be heresy, he was pleased to find his enrollment dropping because the state residential school was not the best placement for many children. For others, because of family situations that called for outside protective care or because of the need for intensive work with the students, the state-supported or state-operated school was important. There will always be a need for these schools, especially for children with low-incidence handicaps.

A Situational Behavioral Model for Analyzing and Improving Administrative Effectiveness in Programs and Schools for the Deaf

Thomas J. Landers

Effective leadership is an important key to improving the quality of programs and schools for the deaf. Although much research has been focused on either the teacher or on the deaf child, there has been little critical examination of the administrative effectiveness in instructional programs for the deaf. Why are some administrators, supervisors, and program heads more effective than others? Why is an administrator often highly effective in one situation and ineffective in another? Is there one *ideal* administrative style that is effective in all situations? Can effective administrative behavior be analyzed, understood, learned? Is it possible to construct a comprehensive theoretical model that deals with all of the variables involved in supervisory and administrative behavior—one that is equally valid for jobs at all levels and all types of educational settings and cultural environments, including schools and programs for the deaf?

The theoretical model (Landers, 1979, 1981; Reddin, Landers, & Reddin, Note 1) presented here provides a comprehensive conceptual framework for analyzing and understanding effective administrative behavior. It also provides a paradigm for further research, as well as a basis for practical training. The theoretical constructs of the situational eight-style model that this writer adapted for educational organizations from the earlier 3-D theory of managerial effectiveness (Reddin, 1970) have been validated by a series of nine research projects conducted under the writer's direction over the past 10 years.

This article will (a) briefly trace the streams of thought that led to the conceptualization of the 3-D Theory of Educational Administrative Effectiveness, (b) describe the model, (c) summarize some of the initial findings of our research, and (d) describe its applications in the training of administrators and supervisors. (See Landers, Note 2.)

The Historical Development of Style Theories and Models

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) pioneered in the description of leader behavior patterns. Their 1939 study classified leadership styles as *autocratic, laissez-faire,* and *democratic.* Carter (1951), Cattell (1951), and Chein (1962), all early researchers, also focused on leader behavior. In recent years about 50 style models with various features and numbers of styles have been developed. Some are based on the simplistic bipolar *democratic vs. autocratic* construct. Many of the major models have been influenced by either the Ohio State studies (Halpin, 1966) or McGregor's (1957) theories *X* and *Y*. Although valuable for their contribution to the advancement of thought and stimulation of research, none of these adequately dealt with all of the complex variables in leader behavior, and many were based on premises rejected by subsequent research findings.

Two Dimensions of Leader Behavior

The extensive research at Ohio State University during the late 1940s and early 1950s, under the direction of Carroll Shartle, established that nearly all of the behaviors exhibited by leaders in organizations fall into two categories—consideration (behavior directed toward maintaining good interpersonal relations, high morale, and job satisfaction) and initiating structure (behavior characterized by directing and structuring group effort toward the common goal). Many models have used these two dimensions, which are similar to the *social-situation* and *work-situation* categories earlier identified by Murphy (1941). Subsequent research has also confirmed the validity of the two Ohio State dimensions.

Although some studies have erroneously perceived these dimensions as either *separate* (Bales, 1953) or *dependent* (Likert, 1961) variables, the Ohio State studies concluded that *initiating structure* and *consideration* are orthogonal (independent) variables (see Figure 1). In other words, at a given time, a leader can be exhibiting one of these types of behavior with little evidence of the other, or he or she can be using a high or a low amount of both at the same time (Halpin, 1966). This concept suggests that various styles can represent the various combinations of the two dimensions, and a number of style models have been based on this construct.

Style Models with an Ideal Style

Earlier writers had assumed or implied that there was only one leadership style that assured effectiveness. Max Weber's writings (1947) would suggest a bureaucratic style with what later came to be called low

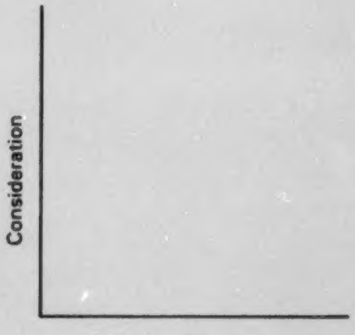

Figure 1
Ohio State's Orthogonal Variables in Leader Behavior

> **“Most of the popular contemporary style models explicitly espouse an ideal style.”**

consideration and low-initiating structure. Frederick Taylor focused on task to the virtual exclusion of relationships, while Elton Mayo focused on human relations, neglecting other variables. Most of the popular contemporary style models explicitly espouse an ideal style. The Ohio State model, Halpin's model, Blake's Grid (1964), and Likert's Four System Theory are cases in point.

Andrew Halpin, a researcher in the Ohio State studies, developed a four-style model based on the dimensions *consideration* and *initiating structure.* In his model (see Figure 2) combinations of above-average and below-average consideration and structure create four styles. Halpin (1966) claims that Quadrant I is the most effective or *ideal* style, stating, “We have seen that the most effective leaders are those who score high on both dimensions of leader behavior.” I accept the construct of four basic styles, but reject the concept of one best style.

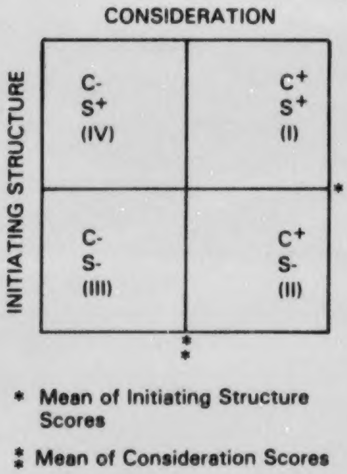

Figure 2
Halpin's Four-Style Model

Note. Quadrant I represents an *ideal* style. (From *Theory and Research in Communication* by A. Halpin, New York: Macmillan, 1966.)

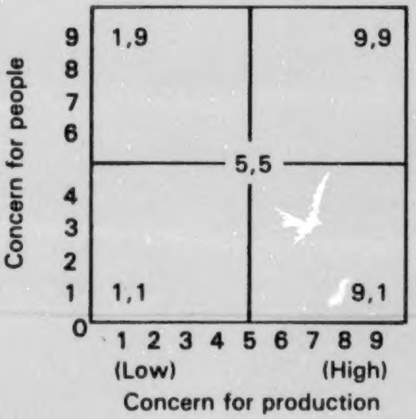

Figure 3
Blake's Grid

Note. Adapted from *The Managerial Grid* by R. Blake and J. Mouton, Houston: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964, p. 10.

Blake and Mouton (1964) developed a similar model, and it has been used extensively in management training. Blake's Grid, as it is commonly called, posits five styles, based on various combinations of *concern for production* (task accomplishments) and *concern for people* (personal relationships). The two dimensions are perceived as independent variables drawn as horizontal and vertical axes of a grid, with a 9-point scale of dimension–concern extending along each axis. The number 1 represents low concern and 9 represents the maximum degree of concern, with 9.9 considered the *ideal style* (Figure 3). Again, the ideal style concept flaws the model.

In addition to the ideal style models based on the Ohio State construct, another group of ideal style models reflects McGregor's theories *X* and *Y* assumptions. These styles progress on a continuum from *X* to *Y*, with the most effective style at the *Y* end of the continuum. An example is Rensis Likert's (1961) Four System Theory of Management Styles. At the *X* end of the continuum, *System 1* (exploitative authoritative) is the least effective. *System 2* (benevolent authoritative) and *System 3* (consultative) are progressively more desirable, and *System 4* (participative) represents the ideal style. Likert's theory fails to deal with situational variables at all and research has not supported the contention that a single system or style is always the most effective.

The Halpin, Blake, and Likert models, like all similar models, are flawed by their commitment to the concept that there is only one style which is always the most effective one for everybody in every situation.

Evidence for Rejecting the Ideal Style Concept

Although most theorists espouse the ideal style concept and much of the training in management, administration, and supervision is currently based on one of the many ideal style models, there is sufficient evidence to reject the concept.

A survey of the research literature raises some interesting questions. The numerous studies that attempted to determine whether a *democratic* (nondirective/participatory/employee-centered) style was more effective than an *autocratic* (directive/supervisory/employer-centered) style have yielded no consensus. Some studies found task-oriented behavior more effective, while others found the relationship-oriented behavior more effective. For example, in the studies of Coch and French (1947), Lawrence and Smith (1955), Levine and Butler (1951), Maier (1950), Mann and Baumgartel (1954), and Wickert and McFarland (1967), posi-

> **"Our research on administrative styles and effectiveness. . .confirms the fact that there is no ideal style."**

tive results occurred when democratic or participative management styles were used. On the other hand, studies by French (1960), Tannenbaum (1954), and Vroom (1960), found an authoritarian style more effective with certain types of employees in certain situations.

When a Coch and French (1947) study first conducted in an American factory was exactly replicated in a different factory located in a different cultural environment, opposite results occurred. With one group, a relationship-oriented style was more effective; with the other group, a task-oriented style was more effective. This suggests that different styles are effective in different situations and that employee expectations constitute an important situational variable.

Vroom also found that within the same organization, some employees responded positively to participative management, while others became less satisfied and less motivated. Tannenbaum also found that dependent subordinates reacted negatively to an increase in participation. Rosenbaum and Rosenbaum (1971) found that under stress, autocratic leadership produced greater productivity, but, in the absence of stress, democratic leadership was more productive.

The divergent findings of these studies forced us to conclude that a given style is not always effective in all situations, and that there must be certain variables in different situations that determine which style will be most effective.

A number of other researchers, such as Anderson (1959), Korman (1966), and Sales (1966), have reviewed the research literature to see if the superiority of one style can be established. Each concludes that there is no evidence to support the ideal style concept.

Our research on administrative styles and effectiveness also confirms the fact that there is no ideal style. The test populations of educational administrators and supervisors in the nine separate studies completed to date reveal that each of the four basic styles (various combinations of task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors) were used *effectively* in various situations. Each of the four basic styles were also used *ineffectively* in certain situations.

It is apparent, therefore, that the evidence invalidates the style models which suggest an ideal style. A valid behavioral model of administrative effectiveness, then, must treat effectiveness as an independent variable in relation to style and situation. This conclusion was pivotal in the development of the three-dimensional model that became the basis of our research.

The Importance of Situational Variables

The divergent findings of the studies reviewed also suggest that there are variables within different situations which determine the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a particular leadership style. The expectations of subordinates, for example, emerged as one such variable in a number of studies. Technology, or the nature of the task, was suggested by others. Haythorn and associates (1956), for example, found that dominant behavior by one group member in a problem-solving task lowered group morale, but the same behavior on a mechanical assembly task increased it—the *technology* of the situations made the difference. Findings such as these prompted the search for other situational variables.

Fiedler's (1967) *Leadership Contingency Model* sets forth eight possible combinations of three situational variables: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. According to Fiedler, the degree of the group leader's effectiveness depends on the appropriateness of the match between the leader's characteristic style and the demands of the situation. He does not suggest, however, that the development of style flexibility on the part of the leader is possible in order to facilitate this match, but would move a leader with the required style into the matching situation.

Our contention is that most administrative and supervisory jobs in education demand the use of a variety of styles by the same individual within the job and throughout his or her career (indeed, throughout any given day) in response to varying situational demands. Therefore, a way to treat all variables in the educational setting must be incorporated into a viable educational model.

The 3-D Theory of Educational Administrator Effectiveness

After William J. Reddin (1964) first published his three-dimensional theory of managerial effectiveness (Note 3) in a journal article in 1964 and in his book, *Managerial Effectiveness* (1970), this writer began, in cooperation with Reddin, to develop and test in a series of research projects the 3-D Theory of Educational Administrator Effectiveness, which has been briefly described in other works (Landers, 1979, 1981; Landers & Myers, 1977), and which will be more fully explained in a forthcoming book (see Note 1).

The Structure of the Model

In every educational organization, whether it be a public school, a school for the deaf, a university, or a unit of government concerned with educa-

"Administrator effectiveness, then, is dependent upon accurate diagnosis of the demands of situations. . . ."

tion, virtually all administrator behavior can be classified in two general categories—one having to do with task and the other having to do with relationships. Structurally, the 3-D Model of Educational Administrator Effectiveness begins with two familiar dimensions, which are defined as follows:

Task Orientation (TO)—The extent to which an educational administrator directs his or her own and subordinates' efforts, characterized by initiating, organizing, and directing.

Relationships Orientation (RO)—The extent to which an educational administrator has personal job relationships, characterized by trusting, listening, and encouraging.

These independent variables may be visualized as two perpendicular axes. They may be present in an administrator's behavior in various combinations. Four combinations of above-average and below-average amounts of task and relationships orientations form four *basic styles*. Behavior characterized by below-average TO and below-average RO is called the *separated* basic style. Behavior characterized by below-average TO and above-average RO is called the *related* basic style. Behavior characterized by above-average TO and below-average RO is called the *dedicated* basic style. Behavior characterized by above-average TO combined with above-average RO is called the *integrated* style. (See Figure 4.)

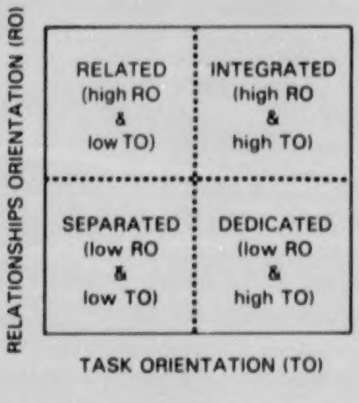
RELATIONSHIPS ORIENTATION (RO)
RELATED (high RO & low TO)
INTEGRATED (high RO & high TO)
SEPARATED (low RO & low TO)
DEDICATED (low RO & high TO)
TASK ORIENTATION (TO)

Figure 4
The Four Basic Styles of Educational Administrative Behavior

Unlike Halpin and Blake, who utilized similar grid plans based on the Ohio State dimensions, we must reject the idea that behavior in the *integrated* quadrant is always most effective. We must also differ with the Theory Y-biased theorists who contend that behavior in the *related* quadrant constitutes the ideal style. As established earlier, no one style is always the most effective, but any one of the four basic styles may or may not be effective, depending on the demands of a given situation.

At this point the 3-D model departs from earlier conceptualizations by positing *effectiveness* as a third independent variable, which creates the third dimension illustrated in Figure 5. The value of the four basic styles is neutral. When they are used appropriately, matching the demands of a given situation, they become effective styles called *separated* +, *dedicated* +, *related* +, and *integrated* +. When they are used inappropriately, not matching the demands of a given situation, they become ineffective styles labeled *separated* −, *dedicated* −, *related* −, and *integrated* −. Thus, we create an eight-style model with four effective and four ineffective styles that cover all possible types of administrative behavior. These eight styles encompass all of the behaviors described in earlier major models, but also include significant behaviors omitted in many of them. Administrator effectiveness, then, is dependent upon accurate diagnosis of the demands of situations in terms of TO and RO (situational sensitivity), and the ability to respond with the most appropriate basic style (style flexibility). In some instances situational demands may be altered to match a preferred style; this is *situational management skill*. The key to effectiveness is the appropriate match between the style used and the demands of the situation.

Style Descriptions

In order to develop style flexibility, the educational administrator must learn to recognize the styles exhibited in his or her own behavior as well as in the behavior of others. From an analysis of administrators' behaviors in educational positions, the behavioral description of the four basic styles and the eight educational administrator styles of the 3-D model have been developed and will be fully characterized in a forthcoming book. Here we shall only briefly summarize the basic styles.

The Separated Style (Low TO/Low RO). This basic style is characterized by an orientation to rules and established procedures, and the person using it identifies with the organization rather than with subordinates, co-workers, or superiors. Behavior is orderly, cautious, conservative, correct, deliberate, past-oriented, resistant to change, and impatient with deviation from the prescribed order. Preferred method of communication is formal written letters and memoranda. There is discomfort with low-structured or ambiguous situations.

The Related Style (Low TO/High RO). This behavior displays more concern for people than for orderly procedures, regulations, or organizational output. It identifies with subordinates more than with superiors or organization and emphasizes personal well-being and development.

"Most positions in educational administration require an administrator to be able to use all four of the basic styles from time to time."

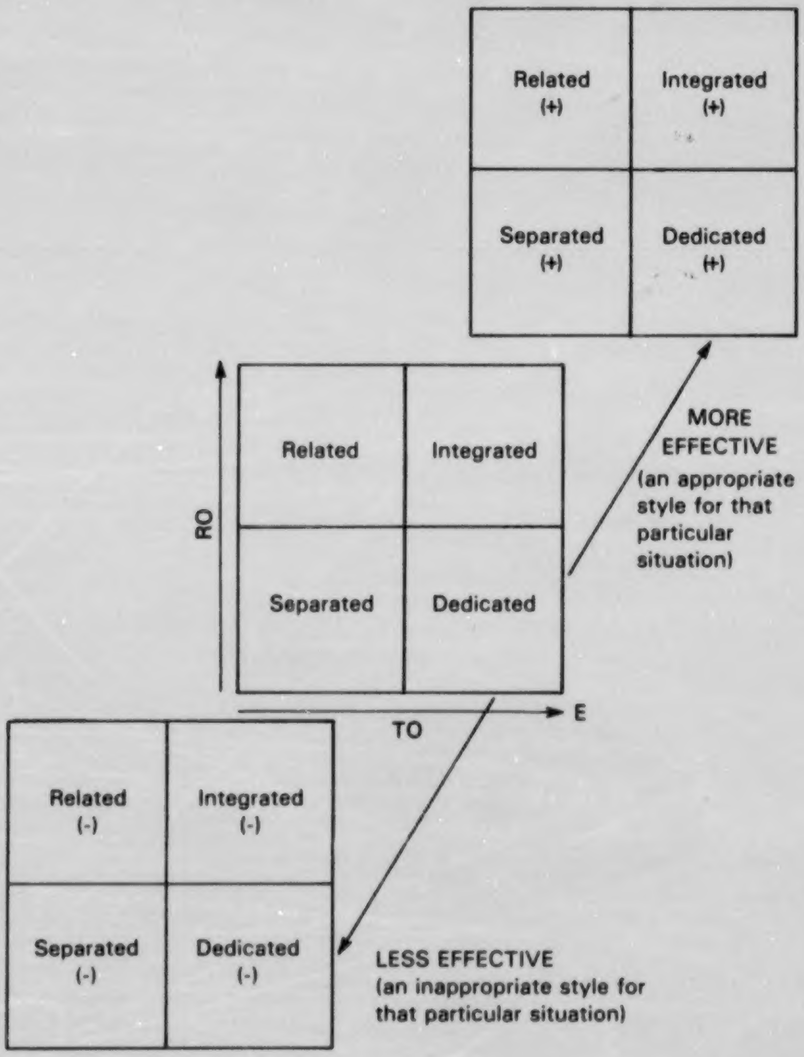
Related
(+)
Integrated
(+)
Separated
(+)
Dedicated
(+)
Related
Integrated
Separated
Dedicated
RO
TO
E
MORE EFFECTIVE
(an appropriate style for that particular situation)
Related
(-)
Integrated
(-)
Separated
(-)
Dedicated
(-)
LESS EFFECTIVE
(an inappropriate style for that particular situation)

Figure 5
The 3-D Model of Educational Administrator Effectiveness

Note. The third dimension is effectiveness, an independent variable. (See Reddin, Landers, & Reddin, Note 1.)

The person who uses this style is sympathetic, approving, trusting, accepting, supportive, friendly, warm, and is comfortable with ambiguity, low structure, and low-position power. Informal conversations are preferred to formal written or oral directives and upward communication is emphasized. This style avoids conflict and overlooks errors.

The Dedicated Style (High TO/Low RO). This behavior is oriented toward task, goals, time-urgency, standards, output, and evaluation. Determination, aggressiveness, confidence, industry, and high initiative characterize the style. The most common communication mode is verbal and one way—downward. Method of control is reward/punishment. Preferred organization pattern is high structure with high position power. Identification is with technology and superiors, rather than with organization or subordinates. This style tends to exploit stress, suppress conflict, and punish errors.

The Integrated Style (High TO/High RO). This style emphasizes teamwork and exhibits a combination of high concern for people and for the task. Authority is derived from aims, ideals, and goals rather than from position power. It uses participation and integrates the individual with the organization, emphasizing shared objectives and responsibilities and motivation based on genuine commitment to goals. Communication is two-way through meetings, personal conversations, and writing. Conflict is used constructively rather than being suppressed or avoided, and errors are treated as learning experiences rather than being ignored or punished.

Most positions in educational administration require an administrator to be able to use all four of the basic styles from time to time. There are some positions whose dominant

> **"The various situational elements exert demands on the administrator in terms of style."**

demands require the use of one more frequently than the others. At all times an administrator is using one of the eight administrative styles, i.e., one of the four basic styles either appropriately or inappropriately. Effectiveness is predicated upon diagnosing situational demands and responding with the appropriate style.

Additional Style Concepts

In the 3-D model, *administrative style* is considered to be the behavioral mode of response to the demands of the various elements in a given situation. Style is the *manner* in which the behavior is expressed, not the *content*. For example, the same decision could be implemented using any of the four basic styles. It is also important not to confuse ideographic variables (such as the individual's values, beliefs, motives, and attitudes) with style. While our research shows that ideographic variables may influence a person's predisposition toward a preferred or dominant style, style is observable behavior and it is the actual behavior (which may or may not be congruent with what is in one's head) that determines effectiveness.

The 3-D theory incorporates several new concepts regarding style which enhance the utility of the model. A bipolar concept of flexibility versus rigidity has been long discussed in the behavioral science literature, with the assumption that rigidity is *always bad* and flexibility is *always good*—too simplistic a treatment of the complexities of administrator behavior. The 3-D theory distinguishes between *style flex* (the range of styles within one's capability) and *style flexibility* (the ability to use various styles appropriately and therefore effectively). High flex, or the use of a range of different styles inappropriately, is ineffective and is called *style drift*. When, because of low flex or low sensitivity, one consistently uses only one style and the style is inappropriate to most of the situational demands, it is called *style rigidity*. Style rigidity reduces effectiveness. However, there are positions or situations where high flex is not required. In these situations, the consistent use of a single style appropriate to low-flex situational demands is called *style resilience*, and it increases effectiveness.

Situational Element Demands

Most style models (Fiedler's is a notable exception) ignore situation; some deal with only one situational variable, such as subordinates. The 3-D theory provides a model for viewing all variables in all educational situations.

Educational administrators encounter hundreds of situational variables. All of the variables can be considered within the five situational elements illustrated in Figure 6. The various situational elements exert demands on the administrator in terms of style. In other words, each situation requires the use of one of the four basic styles for effective results to occur. These demands vary in their strength of impact and in their nature from job to job and from situation to situation within a job. It is essential that an administrator be able to diagnose these demands in order to respond with the appropriate style. The five situational element demands are explained in the following list.

1. *Technology*. The nature of the work being done usually places a significant demand on the administrator in terms of style. For example, the style required for supervising janitors would not be appropriate or effective for supervising teachers because of the different nature of their work; the technology of the open school is different from that of the traditional school and it requires a different style.
2. *Subordinate*. This term would include those persons whose work the administrator oversees. This is an important situational element in schools today because of the wide variety of personalities, backgrounds, and style expectations of personnel.
3. *Superior*. This refers to the person or persons to whom the administrator reports. The boss's own style and expectations exert specific demands. The *superior* may

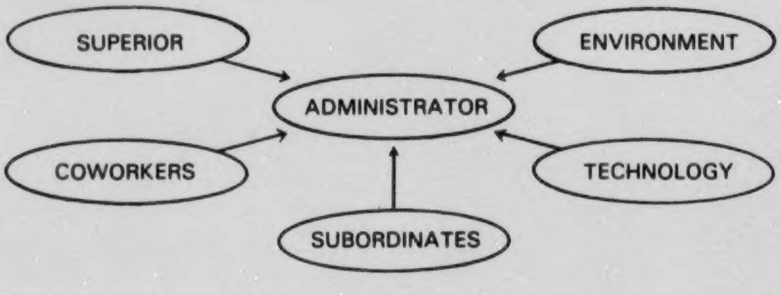

Figure 6
Situational Elements That Place Demands on the Educational Administrator in Terms of Style

"In some instances the situational demands may be altered to match a preferred style. . . ."

be either an individual or group, such as a school board.

4. *Co-workers.* These are colleagues of equal authority with whom the administrator cooperates or interacts. The style required for effective interaction with peers may be very different from that expected by superiors or subordinates. The personal styles and expectations of superiors, subordinates, and co-workers exert varying style demands on the administrator.
5. *Environment.* All of the other variables in the educational situation—accrediting agencies, organizational climate, community and parent groups, societal mores, and local, state, and federal regulations and laws—make up the environment.

The situational element demands are not constant at equal strength, nor are they all operative in every situation. They exert demands for varying amounts and combinations of task orientation and relationships orientation. They can be expressed in terms of the four basic styles. The demands exerted by these elements in a particular situation can be analyzed and graphically portrayed on the basic style grid, using procedures that have been developed for use in training seminars. An example is shown in Figure 7. The administrator's flex can also be superimposed and compared. These procedures are used in our training courses to develop skill in diagnosing situations and to increase situational sensitivity.

In summary, the effectiveness of the behavior of an educational administrator or supervisor depends on the degree to which he or she is able to use the most appropriate style to match the demands of various situations. He or she must develop sensitivity to changing situational demands and skill in accurately diagnosing them in terms of required style. Different situations require different styles. There is no ideal style, but any one of the four basic styles may be the most effective style in a given situation. In some instances the situational demands may be altered to match a preferred style; in most, the administrator must have sufficient style flex to vary style to match the demands of the situation. When one of the four basic styles is used in the right situation it is perceived as one of the four effective styles; in the wrong situation it would be perceived as one of the four ineffective styles. In any given situation, an administrator's behavior can be categorized as exhibiting one of the eight administrative styles. Situational sensitivity, situational management skill, and style flexibility are developable skills. Although many administrators have acquired them from experience and use them intuitively, many have not. An administrator who sets out to master them can do so, thus improving his or her effectiveness.

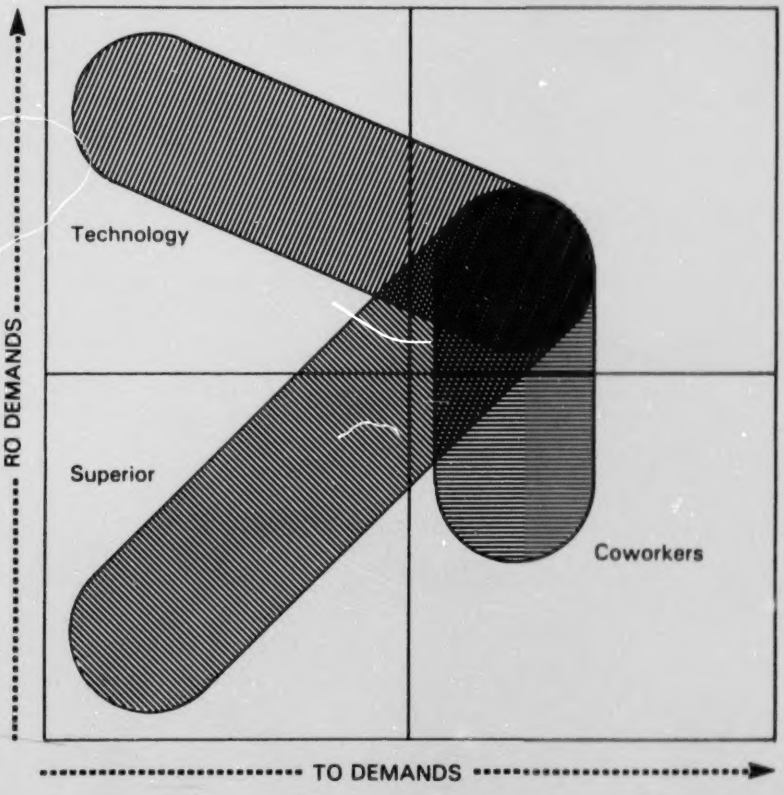

Figure 7
An Example of Situational Element Demands Plotted for a Particular Situation

Note. This situation calls for the use of the Integrated Basic Style (Reddin, Landers, & Reddin, Note 2).

"People can be taught to increase their situational sensitivity and style flexibility. . . ."

Some Conclusions from Our Research Based on the 3-Dimensional Model

Some interesting findings have emerged from the research projects that have been completed to date in the United States (studies have also been done with school administrators in foreign countries). The American studies involved 1700 subjects, including school superintendents, supervisors, secondary and elementary principals, and college administrators. Additional data, which have not yet been analyzed, have been collected from hundreds of participants in our Administrative Effectiveness Workshops over the past 10 years.

The Educational Administrative Style Diagnosis Test (EASDT) and demographic data instruments were used in these studies; some studies used additional instruments to collect other types of data relevant to the particular study. A review of the findings suggests some selected general conclusions.

1. The EASDT is a reliable and valid instrument.
2. The theoretical constructs of the 3-D model are sound, i.e., TO (task orientation), RO (relationships orientation), and E (effectiveness) are independent variables; situational element demands determine appropriate style; and situation/style match determines effectiveness.
3. No reason has emerged to question the general accuracy and usefulness of the behavioral characteristics attributed to the various styles. In follow-up interviews in the Landers, Korb, and Myers (1975) study, the subjects and their colleagues, almost without exception, confirmed the general congruency between the characteristics of their actual observed behavior on the job and the 3-D descriptors of the style indicated by the EASDT as their dominant style. The same study found that the *dedicated*− style correlated positively with McGregor's Theory X and negatively with Theory Y, as it should. The *related*+ style correlated negatively with Theory X and positively with Reddin's Theory Z.
4. The invalidity of the *ideal style* concept was confirmed by the fact that all four basic styles were used both effectively and ineffectively in various situations.
5. There is no significant correlation between femaleness or maleness and effectiveness. None of the studies found women to be less effective than men. One study found them to be slightly more effective.
6. The fact that some significant correlations between demographic variables and a particular effective style appeared within a local school district, but not in the national population, would suggest that organizational climate and other variables in the situational model are, indeed, important demands that vary from organization to organization.
7. Significant correlation was found between the effective use of the basic styles (High E) and high job satisfaction.
8. Interestingly, public high school principals were found to be more effective than their counterparts in private independent schools.

In addition, my experience with the administrative effectiveness seminars and workshops, based on the 3-D model, has supported my conviction that situational sensitivity and style flexibility are developable skills. Contrary to the views of Fiedler and others, people *can* be taught to increase their situational sensitivity and style flexibility and, as a result, increase their effectiveness.

The seminars use instruments and analytic materials and exercises designed to help the administrator define and assess effectiveness, diagnose situations, change situational demands, increase style flexibility and effectiveness, improve team skills, contribute to others' effectiveness, and identify output areas of a position. The administrator should then be able to use the instruments and processes in continued self-development, evaluation plans, personnel placement, MBO systems, and in organizational development programs.

Hundreds of seminar participants —public and private school administrators, administrators from schools for the deaf, European and American college administrators, and government and private agency heads—have shown measurable positive change as a result of this training. This training is now offered to graduate students in administration and supervision on the Gallaudet campus, as well as in the field.

In conclusion, it is hoped that these theoretical constructs and their implications for the design of further research and for preservice and inservice training applications will contribute to the improvement of administrative effectiveness in programs and schools for the deaf.

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Conflict: Cure or Curse?

William J. A. Marshall
Marjorie K. Hanson

Administrators today are no longer above the fray, but must constantly interact with others in various degrees of combativeness.
(Mosher & Wagoner, 1978)

School administration—the task of managing people, powers, and programs—has long been a neglected dimension in the education of hearing-impaired children. Historically, the emotional energies and published concerns of educators working in this field have focused almost entirely on styles of communication, styles of teaching, and styles of learning, to the general neglect of styles of leading and styles of managing. While not all leading is managing, all management, nonetheless, involves leadership—the accomplishment of organizational goals with and through people (Donnelly, Gibson, & Ivancevich, 1978; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Knezevich, 1975).

One of the most commonly recurring topics of daily conversation among teachers, parents, and supervisors is the school's administration, i.e., what it did, what it didn't do, or what it could have or should have done! Such musings occur in the normal course of events whenever the element of authority is present. As natural as this may be, it is still disconcerting to find so little attention given to the topic of school administration in the popular periodicals that usually reach these audiences. Parents and professionals, who have neither the time nor the inclination to delve into the trade journals of management, could well benefit from exposure to readings in this area, if only they could be reached through the literature accessible to them.

How might familiarity with management principles and characteristics of leadership styles benefit this audience? It is tempting, if not accurate, to state that without management there is no organization, no planning, no division of labor, and no coordination of resources. Yet, it is just as tempting and accurate to recall how much the practice of what passes for management has contributed to disorganization, patchwork-quilt planning, multiplication of labors, and the depletion of resources in our schools and programs for hearing-impaired children.

Therefore, in attempting to broach the issue of managerial practices to busy professionals and parents, the authors decided to begin with the most commonly experienced phenomenon of school organizations—conflict. The following summary of the characteristics and advantages of conflict may provide an interesting challenge to those administrators who fear it and to those school organizations that are immobilized by its awesomeness.

The Presence of Conflict

All conflict is born of differences. Differences of opinion, of values, of styles, of philosophies, and of the perceptions generated by an administrator's *new* way of operating versus the system's *customary* way of operating. All of the differences point to the ubiquity of conflict in human interactions. Because it is so widespread, some administrators have viewed conflict as a naturally occurring feature of the managerial landscape. Other administrators, while acknowledging conflict to be a natural good, perceive its antithesis—harmony—as an even greater good. Administrators who opt for this comparison usually view organizational conflict as an irresponsible attempt by a disgruntled minority to block progress and unsettle the status quo. It becomes only a matter of time before such administrators perceive group conflict as a personal attack aimed at their judgments or their authority, even though they proclaim that such group behaviors are evidence of questionable loyalty to the goals of the organization.

There are those administrators who have learned well their lessons in humility and the value of detaching their personal identities from their role identities; they welcome conflict as an intellectual tonic. It is accepted as being of normal occurrence in organizational life and is valued because it stimulates change, encourages participation, provides feedback, promotes partnerships, and instills a sense of camaraderie between and among groups and their leaders. Lippitt (1969) underscored this sentiment when he stated that "conflict releases the energies necessary for producing positive and constructive results. By channeling it and not repressing it, organizational renewal becomes a reality."

Organizations that question their own assumptions by subjecting their ideas and plans to criticism are vibrantly alive and capable of attaining the purpose for which they were created (Schmidt, 1974). Such willingness to handle conflict keeps an organization dynamic and its leaders honest. Such constructive handling of conflict by leaders brings with it an increasing level of self-awareness both of themselves and of the organizations they lead. With such awareness comes the realization that they have much room for improvement. When the leaders and followers of any organization can acknowledge their need for improvement, they have learned their very first lesson in humility, for humility is truth (cf. de Ahumada, 1550/1976).

The Characteristics of Conflict

No single set of theories can adequately describe the complexities of conflict. Swingle (1976), in his review of the literature, offered a synthesis of theories by proposing a set of six philosophical perspectives thought to influence a leader's style in managing conflict. In summary form, they are as follows:

The Medical Model Perspective—views conflict as a cancerous growth that must be excised in order to prevent the illness from spreading and contaminating the entire organization.

The Friction Model Perspective—maintains that where there is no change or movement, there obviously will be no friction or heat. Thus, unlike the medical model, conflict is seen as evidence of healthy and dynamic organization.

The Conservative Perspective—holds fast to the notion that if things are working fine today then they will be working fine tomorrow; so don't change them! If, however, change is to be inaugurated, it should be disciplined, slow, and well contained. Change and conflict, like cancer, are inevitabilities that must be met by management.

The Radical Perspective—identifies conflict with unstructured change. It seeks not to contain conflict, but rather keeps all issues up front and all energies well mobilized. If this results in an open revolt, so much the better, since it allows for the emergence of new leaders—leaders not presently identified on the formal organizational chart.

The Liberal Perspective—while maintaining the necessity of turbulence, it nonetheless desires its abolishment once the reason for its existence is abolished. Unlike the conservative's position, liberals see change as necessary and conflict as desirable; yet, unlike the position of the radicals, they urge that the forces of such change be harnessed and eventually dissolved.

The Silent Majority Perspective—characterizes the general indifference of the great mass of people to social, political, or organizational change. Such indifference has its roots in the phenomenon of spectatorship—that insouciant feeling of not feeling threatened. It can be due to apathy, comfort, or general well being. It is noteworthy that this uncommitted mass can become suddenly very committed, once the issues hit close to home. The phenomenon of the last minute swing vote is a case in point.

Aggression vs. Defense

This summary of biases operating on groups and their leaders gives us a convenient conceptual schema from which to describe conflict's multifaceted characteristics. The first characteristic pertains to the notion of aggression and defense. Any time Party A makes claim to the resources of Party B in an organization, management unwittingly attempts to resolve the issue by determining the legitimacy of Party A's aggression. The usual questions are asked: Who started it? What went wrong? Who is more culpable than the other? and What should be the appropriate response (read: punishment)?

The popularity of this approach is duly documented in the annals of warfare. Furthermore, it is witnessed daily in almost every home where parents intervene in spats among siblings. However popular it may be to settle battles and fisticuffs by asking who hit whom first, in order to punish the aggressor and make amends to the aggrieved, it is deplorably dangerous and antediluvian for modern managers to employ this strategy in handling dissent. This is because the attribution of causality brings with it the attribution of intent, and the only purpose for establishing intent is to assess blame. Administrators who use this strategy thus place themselves in the dubious position of being lawyer, judge, and jury all in one.

Competition for Resources

The second characteristic for discussion exposes the root cause for nearly every instance of organizational conflict—the competition for limited resources. Resources by their nature may be of two kinds. Resources of the first kind are tangible. These may include (a) an increased share of the budget; (b) an increase of equipment, materials, or office space; or (c) an increase in the number of personnel positions on the organizational chart. Resources of the second kind, however, are considerably more intangible and more powerful. They may include such perceptual realities as (a) power, (b) popular backing, (c) time, (d) authority, and (e) responsibility.

Whether the resources in question are tangible or intangible, they lend a definite chemistry to the conflict equation. On the one hand, the goods being coveted are perceived as being valuable, when in fact such value is usually relative and transitory. On the other hand, the goods are perceived as being limited. Such a perception is usually valid, due to the finite nature of all resources. Unless the conflict situation is appropriately managed, Party A will cease asking Party B for a greater share in the resource pool and will begin demanding that the resources be redistributed. When this occurs, sit-ins, sick-outs, strikes, and other species of organized revolt become inevitable.

Emotions and Perceptions

A third characteristic permeating all manners and degrees of conflict is the emotional voltage of the participants. Emotions form the basis of our defensive and offensive behaviors. They are usually colored by our perceptions, and in turn sizably distorted by them. As Paul Hersey (Note 1) once put it so aptly, "It is not the reality of the event that is so difficult

"As the conflict escalates step-by-step, each party will attempt to outbid the threats of the other."

to manage, as it is the perception of that reality." Understandably, the way people see things greatly influences the way they will act and react. This interplay of emotion with perception usually manifests itself whenever opposing forces in a conflict situation select spokespersons to represent their respective party's position. Prior to the issue of the conflict, most members in an organization will be inclined to consider each other as professional, competent, well intended, and mature. However, after the lines are drawn up and positions are entrenched, the spokespersons will become viewed as anything *but* professional, competent, well intended, and mature.

The feelings of antipathy hurled at the spokespersons, however, are not always due to the emotionally shaded perceptions of others. Conflict, by its nature, brings to the front new leaders from within the ranks of the shadow (informal) organization. Not being a part of the present (formal) hierarchy, they become intoxicated by the heady whiff of newly found power and popularity. The issue(s) that originally gave rise to the conflict now become(s) superseded by a new and more important raison d'être; namely, the maintenance of this newly won, ego-enshrining visibility.

The Spiraling Effect

The last characteristic is the most subtle, yet seldom recognized property of conflict—the *bidding escalator.* Simply put, as the conflict escalates step-by-step, each party will attempt to outbid the threats of the other. It is this parrying that gives conflict the dynamic quality of a spiral. To be successful at the process of bidding and counterbidding, the bidder must (a) be perceived as actually having the capability of following through with the threat, and (b) be able to up the ante by going the other party's bid one better. With each upping of the ante, the bidding tempo increases, while the time between the delivery of each threat and counterthreat decreases. Such accelerated bidding not only increases the likelihood of perceptual and judgmental errors, it also increases the role of the emotions while decreasing the availability of time to explore meaningful alternatives.

Unfortunately, any delay in the delivery of bids in a fast-paced game implies uncertainty and ultimate defeat. Like every fast or high-stakes game, the quicker on the draw and the more impressive the threat the better, if for no other reason than to show that the bidder is still in the game and not at all close to his or her limits. Thus, with increasing tempo and decreasing response time, the threats move up the bidding escalator, pushing the parties through the spirals of conflict into a confrontation that is ridiculously disproportionate to the original issue. Administrators who allow such spirals to occur in their organizations are engaging in nothing other than the proverbial game of *chicken.*

By allowing the conditions of conflict to spin and spiral, administrators often find themselves resorting to a drastic and particularly unproductive strategy of management intervention. The essence of this approach is best illustrated in the expression "I'm right by the power of might." The focus, no longer concerned with the original issue of legitimacy of access to the resource pool, has now become a desperate attempt to beat the other party. This primitive and highly punitive approach toward conflict resolution has a dismal track record in both the annals of management and in the public consciousness. Whether fueled by the desire to save face, or by the desire to rid the organization of its cancer, the win/lose mentality is destructive. It divides by causing entrenchment of positions within the organization. It also ignites a spirit of team loyalty that results in distrust and misperceptions of the actions of the opposing team.

Methods of Resolving Conflict

The role that perceptions play in conflict situations was investigated by Hovland (1957). His research revealed that whenever one party (B) proposed a set of remedies to dismantle the source of friction, the opposing party (A) reacted immediately by perceiving only the differences, not the similarities, between B's proposal and its own. Hovland also found that while the members of each party could agree and correctly identify the elements constituting their own platform of solutions, they were either unable or unwilling to recognize the very same elements contained in the opposing party's platform. Such "cognitive blind spots," as Hovland labeled this phenomenon, are commonly experienced in many nonconflict-type situations as well. That is, people who are inclined to espouse a particular point of view will select from various sources of reference only those passages that support their own position. Information that is contrary to their point of view is either rejected or quickly glossed over. Understandably, then, whenever the voltage of highly charged emotions colors the perceptions of opposing parties, the need for extraordinary intervention skills becomes paramount if a stalemate—or worse, an explosion—is to be avoided.

Mediation

Administrators, finding themselves facing the classic standoff of a win/lose battle, may choose not to exer-

> **"This solution-mindedness attitude becomes an impediment to the conflict management process, needlessly protracting it and almost always defeating it."**

cise the power of might by opting to import the skills of a labor mediator. The mediator's role in managing such conflict includes (a) keeping lines of communication open; (b) moderating frustration by buffering it; (c) preventing the occurrence of further polarization, not only between the opposing parties, but also preventing it from spreading to the uncommitted mass of people within the organization; and (d) encouraging each party to slide, step-by-step, back down the spiral of the high stakes realm of conflict to a level where potential agreement can be reached, albeit reluctantly. While such third-party intervention has considerable advantages over the more blatant power alternative, it has its drawback. Like all solutions attained by compromise, there are few people who will support the compromise wholeheartedly.

Arbitration

In predicaments of considerably more gravity, where the issues are weighty or the numbers of people caught up in the vortex of dispute are sizable, management by arbitration must occur. Unlike the mediator's role in third-party interventions, the arbiter is vested with all decision-making authority. Being fully empowered, either by mutual consent or court decree, to adjudicate the outcome, arbiters focus their attention on compliance. That is, they attempt to determine the degree to which each party has complied with the established operating procedures within the organization.

Litigation

When neither the administrative power of might, nor third-party intervention, nor arbitration provide workable solutions, then the ultimate and most formally structured of all conflict management strategies remains—litigation. Juridical procedures are by intent and design adversarial proceedings that attempt to establish cause and effect relationships. They do this by (a) affixing blame, (b) proving intent, and (c) providing redress. That such an ultimate strategy is resorted to in today's organizations is recognized as fact; that such a strategy is necessary (or must be resorted to) is a myth that should be dispelled by modern management.

The Conflict Reduction Model

Frey and Young (1978) composed an 8-step conflict reduction model. The effectiveness of this management model, however, is quite dependent on the attitudes operating in the mind of the administrator employing it. For example, it is well recognized that the handling of dissent usually brings with it the imperative of doing or seeing things the resolver's way. Administrators, like the participants involved in the conflict, often become *conflict blind* and compulsive about how they can see it being resolved. Although they are usually able, they are oftentimes unwilling to consider how others may see it being resolved. This solution-mindedness attitude becomes an impediment to the conflict management process, needlessly protracting it and almost always defeating it. A wise admonition, therefore, is to urge administrators not to dwell, at least initially, on finding solutions to the conflict at hand, but, instead, to direct their energies toward reducing the problem into more manageable proportions. Once this perspective can be adopted, the following procedural steps of the Frey and Young model can be implemented.

1. Emphasize positive strengths—the glass is half-full and not half-empty kind of thinking;
2. Build trust—people become better listeners when their defenses are not activated by threats;
3. Be an active listener—demonstrate the effectiveness of your listening ability by keeping an ear for feelings as well as for meaning; restate what you heard until the speaker is satisfied that you have indeed heard him or her out;
4. Do reality testing—since each person is bringing to the situation a set of biases and assumptions, force them out into the open so that they can either be endorsed or corrected;
5. Set goals—in concert, as a group, get everyone to write down the goals that they want to see accomplished; emphasize similarities in order to minimize differences; this step develops a measure of respect for the opposing point of view;
6. Generate alternatives—in concert, as a group, write down all alternatives (solutions) to the problem without passing judgment on the value of any of them;
7. Select alternatives—in concert, as a group, eliminate the most outlandish and undesirable alternatives; re-sort the remaining ones under two column headings: Highly Likely and Somewhat Likely; begin with the latter column, for the purpose of eliminating it quickly, and ask the following questions of each alternative listed:
    a. At best, if we chose this alternative, we could expect . . .
    b. At worst, if we chose this alternative, we could expect . . .
    c. Realistically, the most probable consequence for choosing this alternative would be . . .
8. Implement points of agreement—write out who does what, when, where, and how.

An attractive and notable feature of this model is its emphasis on

> **"By acting in concert, no one. . .stands out as the star; all participants develop a sense of group ownership by being encouraged to buy into the problem."**

group action. The role of individual personalities is greatly minimized, since the focus is on issues and not people. By acting in concert, no one individual (read: administrator) stands out as the star; all participants develop a sense of group ownership by being encouraged to buy into the problem. The likelihood of anyone winning or losing or affixing the blame is also greatly minimized.

Alternative Strategies for Resolving Conflict

Another alternative recommended for the handling of conflict is available to administrators when the Frey and Young model is not appropriate to the situation at hand. This strategy, successfully employed on numerous occasions by one of the authors, is highly volatile and requires special handling. Its potential for misfiring is uncomfortably high; thus, becoming in itself a source of conflict. Every caution must be used to exercise it nonvindictively and in accord with the highest prescripts of charity.

The proper setting for the use of this approach is a group meeting. As anyone who is familiar with even the most rudimentary dynamics of group psychology knows, people act differently when in a group than when they are apart from the group. And consciously or not, some people give way to behaviors that tend to obstruct the group's process. Jones (1980) in studying this phenomenon listed a series of disruptive ploys that most readers will find quite familiar. Making use of his list and combining it with the following prefatory statements, a powerful strategy for conflict intervention results.

Well into the meeting, after a distinct pattern of disruptive behavior has emerged from one or more participants, state:

- I hear and see two things going on in this meeting.
- First, what I hear you saying is . . . (use active listening principle of re-statement)
- Second, what I see you doing is . . . (quote one or more of the following ploys)
  - -interrupting and cutting people off while they are talking
  - -sidetracking, topic jumping, changing issues, and multiplying concerns
  - -polarizing the issues and prompting people to take sides
  - -emotionalizing the issues by expressing fear and anxiety about possible outcomes
  - -challenging others who have made significant points by showing excessive concern with sources of data, or rights, or legalities
  - -expressing sarcasm or becoming alarmist by claiming that the sky is falling
  - -becoming fatalistic by saying "What's the use," or "The administration won't listen to us anyway"
  - -complaining about the system in general, or specifically about the leader, the agenda, or the meeting
  - -threatening to withhold support, or to resign, or to absolve yourself of any responsibility
  - -impugning the motives of others
  - -withdrawing from active participation or pouting
  - -discounting the contributions of others by saying "Yes . . . but!"
  - -wet-blanketing the meeting by pointing out everything that is wrong with everything that has been said
  - -personalizing issues or topics by directing all remarks toward persons rather than ideas

Aside from the potential drawbacks already listed for this technique, the administrator using it must become fairly fluent with Jones's list of ploys in order to appear convincing. Experience has shown that either the person causing the disruption was totally unaware of his or her own behaviors; or, if the behavior was intentional, other members of the group will agree that such behavior has indeed been occurring, thereby depriving the dissenting members of continued group support. Lastly, since nothing can ever take the place of common sense, it remains for the administrator to decide whether to use this approach publicly, in front of the group, or privately, one-on-one with the individual(s) in question.

Management Styles

Style is not a question of how administrators think they act, but of how they are actually perceived to act by the members of the groups they lead (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Halpin & Winer, 1957). All administrators possess a characteristic style for managing their organizations. While some styles are consciously selected and others are not, they are very basic to the core of the personality of the administrator using them. Though basic, the styles are still very much amenable to change and modification. Simpson (1977) and Zoll (1974) analyzed various styles that administrators tend to use when managing conflict. Zoll identified five of the most common style variations in conflict management.

Denial or Withdrawal—thinking of conflict as something that will go away by refusing to acknowledge its existence; may be an effective approach if the issue or timing is not critical.

Suppression or Smoothing Over—thinking of conflict as a negative reflection on oneself or on the organization by preferring to play down any differences; may

"By asking administrators to do self-assessments, an ideal reading of their managerial styles emerges."

be an effective approach whenever it is more important to preserve a relationship than to deal with a relatively minor issue.

Power or Dominance—thinking that conflict can be resolved by the "right of might" or pulling rank. The effectiveness of this approach is inversely proportional to the frequency of its use.

Compromise or Negotiation—thinking in terms of "You give a little, I'll give a little, and we'll meet in the middle." If over used, it will contribute to inefficiency and ineffectiveness in the organization. Bargaining induces each party to assume inflated positions because each is aware of the need to give something up; may be effective when used to forestall a win/lose standoff.

Integration or Collaboration—rather than attempting to defend a position or a person, emphasis is placed on creative problem solving. It presupposes that each party is both able and willing to modify its original perceptions. Due to the amount of time and patience this approach demands, the temptation to resort to the *power* mode is ever present, thus demolishing the potential of this approach. If time allows and if mutual trust prevails, this approach has much to recommend it; it is decidedly synergistic, i.e., it underscores the fact that the collective opinion of all parties is greater than the sum of the individual opinions of each party.

An Experiment

Simpson (1977) developed a 20-item instrument, based on Zoll's (1974) schema of styles, that could conveniently identify an administrator's preferences for handling conflict.

A few of the instrument's inherent weaknesses need to be mentioned. The first is its extreme brevity, which permits it to do little more than to characterize preferences rather than styles of conflict management. Yet, in view of the clear absence of any comparable piece of instrumentation, Simpson's instrument provides a useful point of departure in advancing the relatively young science of management.

In spite of its brevity, the instrument has a demonstrated capacity to illustrate how apparently isolated decisions, which are used in solving specific instances of organizational conflict, tend to merge together into patterns of consistent behaviors. It is the consistency of such measured behaviors, when taken in the aggregate, that allows the instrument to become a rough measure of managerial style configurations.

The second shortcoming deals with the instrument's relative narrowness of problem sampling. Because Simpson's pool of problems presents samples of organizational conflict common to the manufacturing industry, it becomes necessary for any user to gauge the extent to which such problems may also be common to other organizational settings. The present authors, concerned with an educational-type organizational setting, sought to correct this difficulty by directly asking the participants in the experiment their own opinion on the matter. Responses were overwhelmingly positive to the statement: "The frequency with which I experience, in the daily routine of my duties, situations similar to those described in the instrument would be (a) always," (b) sometimes, (c) seldom, (d) never." A total of 80% ($n=24$) perceived the frequency to be more than *seldom* or *never*, as a combined category. It should also be mentioned at this point, parenthetically, that due to the instrument's nominal-scale level of measurement, no statistical treatment of the data, other than general frequency counts, was advisable.

The third potential shortcoming pertains more to the use of the instrument than to the instrument, per se. It has been noted that the issue of administrative style was a matter dependent upon the perceptions of group members observing an administrator in action. Whenever such perceptions are difficult to obtain, due to shortages of funds, time, or other resources, it is still, nonetheless, possible to assess style through self-perceptions. That is, by asking administrators to do self-assessments, an *ideal* reading of their managerial styles emerges. Ideal in this sense means that they think they engage in such behaviors, as contrasted with the more *real* behaviors they are perceived to engage in by others. The authors, operating under such resource constraints, opted for this approach, an approach popularly used in the management research literature (see Hemphill & Coons, 1957).

Simpson's instrument is made up of four fairly typical situations of organizational conflict. Each problem situation appears with a set of five alternative behavioral approaches that may be used in managing it. These approaches correspond to the five categories described earlier in Zoll's schema of conflict management styles. The respondents to the instrument are asked to show their preference for each alternative by rank ordering them on a 1-5 scale. A rank of 1 indicates the most desirable approach and a rank of 5 indicates the least desirable approach; no split ranking is allowed. The authors arbitrarily limited the focus of their interest to the first three rankings. Responses below that level were disregarded because the approaches considered as being less desirable by administrators would probably not be part of their behavioral style repertoire. Thus, the behaviors assigned a ranking of 3 would expectedly be borderline in their usage, depending on circumstances present.

"The vast majority of administrators sampled showed no apparent consistency of response in their preferences for handling conflict."

The subjects selected for this frequency-type survey experiment were 52 line administrators appearing in the Gallaudet College organizational hierarchy. Inability to respond within the allotted time, coupled with incomplete returns, resulted in an *N* of 30 scorable instruments. The only background data gathered on these respondents revealed that 4 out of 5 possessed up to 10 years of administrative experience in managing groups of from 10 to 50 employees. The remainder had 16 or more years of experience managing 100 or more people.

Table 1 shows the frequency count distribution of all respondents' preferences for handling conflict. Although only about half (n=14) exhibited a consistent preference for a given style as their first choice, that group always picked integration as their first choice preference. However, most of the respondents failed to show any consistent preference for any alternative back-up style, as their second or third choice rankings revealed. If any consistency was found at all for a second choice preference, it appeared only in the power category (n=6). The vast majority of administrators sampled showed no apparent consistency of response in their preferences for handling conflict.

The conclusions that we can draw from such a limited sampling with an instrument of acknowledged weaknesses are tenuous at best. It is interesting to note, however, that when all respondents were asked to freely associate any three terms with the stimulus word *conflict*, a definite pattern did emerge. The most frequently appearing response associations were (a) resolution, solution, resolve; and (b) communication, talk, listen. Thus, the present sample of administrators appears to show a distinct preference for solution-mindedness and people involvement. This is enlightening. On the one hand, it appears that there is a genuine interest in hearing problems out and getting to the heart of the matter quickly. On the other hand, it also appears that some structured skill-building sessions in the use of conflict management strategies might prove to be a profitable experience for some administrators. As noted earlier, solution-mindedness can prove to be a classic impediment in the handling of conflict.

Table 1
Frequency for Preferences in Handling Conflict within Zoll's Five Category Schema

	Consistency of Style Preferences					Lack of Consistency in Style[a]	Totals[b]
Rankings	Denial	Suppression	Power	Compromise	Integration		
First Choice	0	0	0	0	14	16	30
Second Choice	0	0	6	0	1	22	29
Third Choice	0	2	2	2	0	22	28

[a] Lack of consistency is defined as the failure to select any one of Zoll's categories in a consistent manner—irrespective of the choice ranking—to at least three, if not four, of the problems presented in organizational conflict.
[b] Not all frequencies totalled 30 due to incomplete or ambiguous responses.

A Solution?

In closing, we leave you with a philosophical note. A young man once went up to Socrates and said, "I want knowledge." Socrates, in trying to determine how badly the young man wanted knowledge, took him to the beach. When they had waded into the water up to their necks, Socrates pushed the young man under and struggled to keep him there. After allowing the young man to surface, Socrates asked him what he wanted most. The young man answered, "Air, I want air!" "Indeed," replied Socrates, "when you want knowledge like you wanted air under water, then you'll get it."

And so it is with education administrators. When they come to the realization that they still have a way to go in the science of perfection, they will have made their first step toward truth, for humility is truth. How alluring the prospect, how elusive the goal!

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Increasing the Professional Effectiveness of Instructional Supervisors in Deaf Education

Francis M. Duffy

It has been noted that "the quality of the program in any school for the deaf is dependent on the quality of the supervision the teachers receive" (Brill, 1974, p. 144). The problem is, however, that the quality of supervision is generally inferior. Reavis and Cawelti (Note 1) in assessing how well the field of education was providing instructional improvement services found that "instructional supervision was rated the least adequately provided service" by teachers, principals, supervisors, and superintendents. Carr (cited in Thomure, 1972; Note 2), in talking about supervision in programs for the hearing impaired, suggested that the quality of supervision was a major problem in these programs. A recent informal telephone survey of leaders in deaf education (Duffy, Note 3) suggests that Carr's observations are still true. When asked to rate the need for providing graduate level programming with a focus on instructional supervision, the respondents gave it an average rating of 1.53, where 1 was the highest possible rating. Griffing (cited in Brill, 1974, p. 148), in commenting on the need for increasing the professional effectiveness of supervisors, stated that "supervisors continue their professional growth in areas such as administration and supervision, curriculum and instructional methods." Given, then, the significance of the need to increase the professional effectiveness of supervisors, how should we who are interested in the process of preparing supervisors respond?

It is recognized that those who think about and practice supervision sometimes hold different views on providing learning experiences in supervision—experiences to increase professional effectiveness. Some believe that supervisors must be content specialists capable of offering expert advice on the subject matter of instruction and that supervisors should be superteachers. Others believe that content specialization should be the domain of the teachers and that supervisors need to be process specialists who can view a sequence of instruction (subject matter notwithstanding) and determine through analysis and inference whether or not that sequence is logical, psychologically sound, and potentially effective. The basic philosophy for the position taken in this article is drawn from the latter perspective and constitutes the basic premise that supervision should be concerned with supervisory processes and not teaching expertise.

The position taken here does not discount the value of supervisory knowledge and skill in subject-matter areas. Rather, it should be viewed as a position that recognizes that (a) supervisors must have several years of experience as classroom teachers, experience that provides them with the knowledge and skill in curriculum-content areas related to their supervisory responsibilities; and (b) concerned supervisors will take steps to maintain and/or increase their knowledge and skill within curriculum-content areas.

Developing Effective Supervision in Special Education

At this point, one might ask what is it that supervisors must know and use to be effective? A review and analysis of the literature (e.g., Alfonso, Firth, & Neville, 1981; Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969; selected state certification requirements, such as those of Pennsylvania and New Hampshire; an analysis of the requirements for educational programs with a focus on supervision, such as the Program in Curriculum and Supervision at the University of Pittsburgh; Duffy, Note 4) indicated seven general areas of supervisory knowledge and skill that may contribute to effective supervisory behavior in special education. These areas are explained in the following section.

Educational Foundations and Research

The theoretical thrust of special education is to help students with special needs to move toward the standards of general education. What are those standards? Additionally, all education occurs within a cultural context. What are the social foundations of general, special, and deaf education? Children with special needs require special learning strategies. What are some of the elements of educational psychology that can be used to help students with special needs to move toward the general educational standards? Instructional problems in special education need to be solved. What does the research indicate about these instructional problems? Answers to these and other questions can help the instructional supervisor to develop a solid foundation upon which to build specialized knowledge and skill in supervision.

Example:

Supervisor A is working with a committee of teachers to improve the academic curriculum for students with hearing impairments in a private school for the deaf. The educators want their curriculum to approximate curricular standards from general education. Having a basic understanding of general educational standards, Supervisor A is able to share with the curriculum committee some ways in which their curriculum can be modified to comply with these standards.

Interpersonal Communication

Knowledge and skill within this area are critical, for they allow for the accomplishment of organizational goals and objectives with accompanying high morale and feelings of self-worth. The ability to communicate effectively in a variety of organizational situations and to manage related communication processes (e.g., conflict) contributes significantly to an instructional supervisor's professional effectiveness. Communicating effectively includes (a) being able to know when what you are saying and thinking is incongruent with what you are doing; (b) diagnosing communication problems within the faculty and between the faculty and yourself; and (c) writing memoranda that are clearly stated and sensitive to the needs of the reader(s).

Example:

A supervisor is conducting a supervisory conference with a teacher about the teacher's classroom performance. In the conference, the supervisor shares his perceptions of some strengths and weaknesses in the teacher's performance. The supervisor notices that whenever he begins to discuss some of his hypotheses about the problems that he is perceiving, the teacher becomes defensive and verbally combative. The supervisor knows that if he does not manage this conflict the conference could seriously damage the supervisory relationship that he has been developing with this teacher. To respond to the teacher's defensiveness, the supervisor asks the teacher about her perceptions of her strengths and weaknesses in teaching. The conference continues from that point and concludes with mutual agreement on objectives for the teacher to improve her instruction.

Supervision—Theory and Practice

Educational organizations have become increasingly complex, thereby increasing the need for specialized knowledge and skills in supervision. Supervision must be grounded in the theoretical and practical aspects of the process, for it is more than an occasional observation of a teacher's classroom performance—it is more than performance evaluation. Supervisors must be able to plan, organize, and implement a system of supervision that provides for continuity in the supervision that the teachers receive. Supervising is an act of synthesis whereby knowledge and skills from related processes are applied to the purpose of helping teachers to improve instruction and to grow professionally. Supervision can be effective.

Example:

A supervisor is concerned with increasing the effectiveness of her classroom observations of teaching. Consequently, she learns and begins to use a cycle of supervision that is initiated by a conference with the teacher prior to the observation. In this conference, the supervisor and teacher are supposed to jointly plan for the upcoming observation. Then (perhaps the next day) the supervisor makes her observation. She collects information according to the plan that she made with the teacher. She stays for the entire period and collects a substantial amount of information. Before she leaves the classroom, she suggests that the teacher reflect on the teaching performance to identify any concerns that he might have. They agree to meet the next day to discuss the observation.

Prior to the second meeting, the supervisor looks carefully at the information that she collected through the observation. She looks for examples of teaching behavior that repeat themselves (patterns). These patterns of behavior may have a significant effect on the quality of the teacher's instruction. Next, she tries to categorize the patterns that she has identified. The categories will help her to relate the patterns of behavior to the research related to that category. For example, she may have noticed that the teacher demonstrated a pattern of waiting only three seconds after asking questions. This category is called *question asking*. There is a large body of theoretical knowledge on effective question asking that the supervisor can refer to in helping the teacher to improve his question-asking behavior.

During the second meeting, the supervisor and teacher discuss the information that was collected during the observation. They share responsibility for recognizing needs, stating problems, and agreeing on objectives to improve instruction and to promote the teacher's professional growth. They then select some strategies for moving toward the objectives. They also plan for continued supervision.

Curriculum Theory, Design, and Analysis

Supervisors do not need to be curriculum specialists, but they must be able to work with teachers to assure that the individual needs, interests, and abilities of the students are being responded to through the curriculum. This means that supervisors must have a basic knowledge and some skills in curriculum theory and design. They must also be able to analyze curricula to identify whether or not the units of instruction are soundly organized.

Example:

The special education teacher for hearing-impaired children in the Pleasantville Intermediate Unit is expected to design individualized education plans for her children. But she has been having some difficulty in doing this. She approaches her supervisor for help.

The supervisor suggests that she take a close look at the *whole* process of developing educational plans. The supervisor points out that although the goals and objectives for the education plans are selected to respond to the individual needs of the children, these goals and objectives must be clearly related to the general education curriculum in the public schools that are served by the intermediate unit. The importance of this is that the students with special needs would then be receiving learning experiences that would be directly related (although modified to respond to their special needs) to the learning experiences provided to children without special needs. That is, *all* children served by the intermediate unit and the public schools within the intermediate unit would be moving toward common goals and objectives, even

> **"The supervisor must know the theory from which [instructional strategies] were derived and be able to recognize when the strategies are deviating from their theoretical constructs."**

though the means to these ends would vary according to the needs of the children.

Given this rationale, the supervisor helps the teacher to develop skills for curriculum analysis. He collects the curricula from several of the school districts within the intermediate unit. He helps the teacher to define some analysis questions (e.g., How relevant is this curriculum to the needs of my children? What are the goals and objectives for this curriculum? and Can these goals and objectives be modified to respond to the needs of my children?). He teaches her how to probe the curriculum to answer the questions. He shows her how to relate the findings of her analysis to writing individualized education plans.

Instructional Theory and Methodology

Instructional strategies (e.g., individualized instruction, computer-assisted instruction, programmed instruction, and peer tutoring) are derived from instructional theory. To increase the effectiveness of these strategies, the supervisor must know the theory from which they were derived and be able to recognize when the strategies are deviating from their theoretical constructs.

Example:

Supervisor B is to observe a teacher. The teacher has informed the supervisor that he will be demonstrating small-group instructional techniques during the observation. He wants the supervisor to collect information on his use of those techniques. But before the observation takes place, the teacher asks the supervisor to review for him some of the basic principles and practices of small-group instruction. To increase the effectiveness of this review, the supervisor suggests that she will prepare a microteaching lesson to demonstrate what she believes are the basic principles and practices. They agree to a time and date for this review.

Organization Change and Development

Knowledge and skill in this area are derived from organizational behavior and intervention theory, sociology, and interpersonal communication theory. Supervisors must be able to identify the problems within their supervisory unit that are constraining interpersonal and programmatic effectiveness (e.g., problems related to conflict between role expectations held for teachers and the teachers' personal needs). After identifying these problems, the supervisors must be able to engage in a process of organization development to solve the problems.

Example:

A supervisor is concerned with the low morale of the teachers in his program (i.e., his supervision unit). The low morale seems to be affecting the children's learning. Also, the teachers' absentee rate has significantly increased during the past year. There are other symptoms of trouble, too.

Knowing that he must have valid information to understand accurately the problems that are facing his supervision unit, the supervisor forms an ad hoc committee of teachers. The supervisor works with the committee to design a set of specific diagnostic questions to ask about the health of their unit. These questions include:

Why are we experiencing these symptoms?

What characteristics of our program are affecting our attitudes?

What problems do the symptoms and characteristics represent?

Can we solve these problems, or are they beyond our control?

Given where we are, where do we want to be?

The ad hoc committee for organization development designs an action plan that focuses on answering the diagnostic questions through a process of questionnaires, interviews, and observations (when appropriate) of actual behavior. All of the diagnostic information is brought back to the team. The information is analyzed; its validity is confirmed or disconfirmed; needs are recognized, problems are stated, and objectives for improvement are agreed upon; and strategies are designed to accomplish the selected objectives. Later, an action plan for implementing the proposed solutions is designed. As the action plan is implemented, progress is monitored. Modifications of the plan are made as needed. All the people in the supervision unit are kept informed of progress and the changes are maintained.

Program Design and Evaluation

The increasing pressure for accountability and effective use of time and resources makes it imperative that supervisors be skilled at program design and evaluation. They must be able to structure their programs so that they can fully respond to the needs, interests, and abilities of students and teachers. The programs must be evaluated (this includes the evaluation of teaching performances within the program), and this evaluation information must be used to increase the effectiveness of the programs.

Example:

A school for the deaf wants to design and implement a new vocational education program for its students. The principals for the elementary and secondary levels are assigned the responsibility for planning this effort. The principals ask the *head teachers* to join the planning team. The head teachers, who are, in fact, the instructional supervisors, are delegated the responsibility of coming up with an action plan for the new program.

Within six months, an action plan is completed. It contains a time line for implementation, actual and needed resources, goals and objectives, etc. The

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plan is a step-by-step process for implementing and evaluating the new vocational education program.

Soon, the program is implemented. Relevant resources and people are engaged in the process. The implementation is evaluated. At the completion of the implementation period, a subcommittee of the planning committee is charged with the responsibility for monitoring the progress of the program for the next two years. They do this because they know that it takes at least two years of maintenance and monitoring of an innovation to assure that the change "takes." At the end of the two years, the program is evaluated once again but by an external program evaluation specialist.

Increasing Professional Effectiveness

It is acknowledged that there is overlap among the areas of supervisory knowledge and skill that have been described. In fact, to separate them for discussion is a distortion of reality, for supervisory behavior is not a collection of distinct sets of knowledge and skills. Nevertheless, the seven areas of supervisory knowledge and skill have been described as a way of helping to understand the complexity of supervisory behavior.

This article has thus far focused on concepts and skills that are crucial to the effectiveness of instructional supervisors. But there is another variable that has not been discussed which has a critical effect on efforts to increase professional effectiveness in supervision—ATTITUDES.

Surely, attitudes about one's role, about the organization, and about people all have an impact on a supervisor's efforts to increase professional effectiveness. There is one attitude, however, that has a direct bearing on how well the supervisor transfers learning into practice. This attitude can be thought of as the *scholar/practitioner perspective*. This perspective focuses on the value of theory in practice.

A scholar/practitioner is one who easily applies the scholarly skills of inquiry, reflection, hypothesis making and testing, data collection and analysis, and so forth, to supervisory practice. A scholar/practitioner discards the artificial and usually ineffective dichotomy of theory *and* practice to work from the perspective of theory *in* practice. The scholar/practitioner uses theory to guide practice and practice to test theory. The scholar/practitioner is effective.

Summary

One of the primary tasks of school organizations in special and deaf education is to focus on increasing the professional effectiveness of supervisors. This is because the supervisors are (or should be) largely responsible for the quality of education in their programs. This responsibility implies being skilled at working with teachers, education specialists, and administrators to improve instruction. Improving instruction requires the acquisition of knowledge and skills within seven general areas of supervisory behavior and acceptance of a scholar/practitioner perspective of one's role as an instructional supervisor.

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Preparing Professionals in Special Education Administration at Gallaudet College

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Educators have continually questioned whether success in school administration was not somewhat akin to the weather—few can predict it, fewer can agree upon it, and none can produce it! However apt or awry this proverbial parallel may be, formulations for school leadership can be prescribed, and managerial effectiveness can be predicted on a better basis than chance expectancy. Although school administration may be the new kid on the block of scholarly and scientific inquiry, it has, nevertheless, produced a recognizable body of knowledge, theory, and practice.

Benezet (1978, pp. 1-4) so eloquently embodied the essence of these thoughts when he characterized the school as being "an intensely human experience . . . not so much managed as led." Leaders of this caliber neither grow up over night nor do they appear out of nowhere. Since they don't materialize from nature, then they must be the offspring of nurture, or at least an admixture of the two. And this is the rub: How is an administrator preparation program expected to train a doctoral degree candidate—already many years into the (special) education profession—in the art and science of school administration, and do so within the space of no more than a triennium of structured experiences? Granted, no training program would make bold the boast of such metamorphic magic; nor would any candidate suffer the role of fool so gladly by admitting to the possibility of such metamorphosis into a compleat administrator on the basis of this brief experience! Nonetheless, the conundrum persists: If the letter killeth, as White (1957) warned, then how does an institution impart skills and direction in graduate students receiving training in special education administration?

This article highlights Gallaudet College's innovative application of the letter and spirit of training Ph.D. personnel for leadership positions in special education and addresses the problems of program design and gray-matter influence. In the interests of brevity, this paper describes the program configuration according to the following schema: (a) program philosophy, (b) training priorities, (c) certification requirements, and (d) skill repertoires.

Program Philosophy

At the risk of begging the question, the task set before us is to describe within specifiable limits that which essentially has no limits. Philosophy concerns itself with that special something, that essence, which makes a program be what it is. Such essence can seldom be captured in print, existing, as it does, in the attitudes and behaviors of the people it affects. Since its establishment, the Gallaudet College program in educational leadership and administration has focused on multiple purposes. These include:

1. Responding to the high priority need for skilled administrators in the fields of deafness and special education.
2. Preparing administrators with broad, diverse, and unique skills for improving the lives of deaf and other handicapped persons.
3. Enhancing competencies in areas related to deafness.
4. Preparing highly qualified hearing-impaired leaders.
5. Contributing valuable new knowledge in deafness and other important related fields through student and faculty research efforts.
6. Preparing educational leaders who are able to maximize organizational effectiveness and who realize the impact and implication of special education legislation.

In addition, our program is guided by the following assumptions:

- Learning is a life-long process. It does not stop with the attainment of some milestone in time, terminal degrees included. This is especially true of administrators and others who specialize in the *people business*. Unfortunately, administrators tend to know more about the people they manage than they do about themselves. Thus the Socratic dictum—Know thyself—becomes a prime area of concern for the training agenda of administrators. (Cf., Jouard, 1971.)
- There is an element of politics in all aspects of administration. Students of management must be sensitized to the dynamics of discerning who gets what, where, when, and how. What is the nature and distribution of power, authority, and influence? What are the resources of power within organizations and how are they manipulated? How are people above you and below you to be convinced that you really want to work *with* them collegially? (Cf., Dahl, 1963; Laswell & Kaplan, 1950; McCutcheon, 1978, pp. 334-338.)
- There exists a great diversity of philosophic commitments among educators. If these professionals cannot learn to cooperate with one another, families of handicapped children will turn increasingly to the courts to resolve their demands for meeting their children's needs.

Today, the education of the handicapped can be likened to an epidemic run wild. The incidence of handicaps is not really known; critical geographic areas are unverified; and panaceas are unconfirmed. Can there be a marshaling of resources to meet the challenge? If so, how can competent personnel be trained, funds be collected and allocated, and programs be both imaginatively designed and effectively managed? (Cf., Westhead & Carriker, 1978, pp. 122-127.)

- Successful educational planning and programming for the exceptional child must be built upon a firm, yet flexible footing. It should include a critical blend of understanding, imagination, leadership, and empathy. Administrators of special education programs should have a basic knowledge about (a) the various service delivery models, (b) the effects of legislative enactments, (c) the impact of the judiciary on educational matters, and (d) types of personnel required to implement special education programming.

More importantly, however, administrators in education must be able to articulate a comprehensive and practical philosophy on which to base educational planning and programming for exceptional children. Additionally, they must be able to demonstrate how this philosophy is compatible with the general educational philosophy of the schools. It must be simple enough to be communicated to the various constituencies of the schools, and practical enough for providing guidelines for action. (Cf., Gearheart, 1974.)

- Efforts are under way to decentralize the management of education (at all levels) at federal and state levels. The winning combination appears to be a certain balance which would retain most of the advantages of central control with a minimal erosion of institutional sovereignty. It is thus incumbent upon managers to become knowledgeable of organizational structures and purposes, the ethics of leadership, and other responsibilities of the modern executive. It is also necessary that they become proficient in the techniques of establishing local planning goals, setting standards of achievement, developing budgeting objectives, establishing policies, and monitoring construction projects. (Cf., Harcleroad, 1975; Nickerson & Stampen, 1978, pp. 274-281.)
- A hazard of highly structured organizations is that the members of groups and the leaders of groups may never pierce beyond structures and daily practices to the very *raison d'etre* of the organization. Unfortunately, for too many educators, school organizations have become a set of routine practices that usually have little impact on the lives of the people therein.

By extension, too many students of educational administration have become lulled into states of ennui by a subject matter that is at once vague in its theoretical reaches and void of practical import to the firing line issues of real life administration. Thus a bridge must be built that effectively connects theory with practice. (Cf., Halpin, 1966.)

To accomplish these goals, the Gallaudet program of studies requires that students demonstrate competencies in all areas intrinsic to the development, maintenance, and evaluation of programs for exceptional individuals. The program is currently built on a series of individual courses; field experiences; practical applications focusing on philosophy, law, finance, personnel administration, research, planning, and curriculum development; and theories of teaching, learning, and administration.

Training Priorities

The Gallaudet program of study is based on research related to the preparation of professional leadership personnel in special education administration. The design includes extrapolations from research findings and investigations.

An early investigation by Mackie and Engel (1955, p. 72) identified how special education directors were pressured into allocating professional time across several conflicting job demands and among various constituencies. In summary, their results indicated that the directors (a) spent 37% of their time focused on dealing with educational leaders at the district and state level, with agency personnel, and with parents; (b) spent 28% of their time consulting with teachers and curriculum experts for the betterment of instruction and with supervisory personnel for the betterment of interdepartmental relations; (c) spent 13% of their time providing services directly related to children; and (d) spent 22% of their time providing personnel with workshops, providing direction for study groups, mounting research efforts, and maintaining public relations activities.

The Council for Exceptional Children provided a more in-depth analysis of the competencies needed by special education administrators (1966, pp. 50-52).

1. An understanding of the total educational process
2. Knowledge of school organization and administrative practices
3. Knowledge of various administrative provisions
4. Knowledge of fiscal procedures
5. Knowledge of curriculum development and methodology
6. Knowledge of supervisory practices and theory and techniques of staff development
7. Knowledge of psychoeducational and other diagnostic procedures
8. Knowledge of personnel practices
9. Knowledge and utilization of community organizations and resources
10. Ability to identify, define, and influence the power structure both within and outside education
11. Knowledge of public relations
12. Knowledge of school law and legislative processes and their implementation
13. Knowledge of school plant planning and utilization
14. Knowledge of research techniques and procedures
15. Knowledge of professional responsibilities to the field

Voelker (1967, pp. 670-706) summarized earlier descriptive studies of this nature and prescribed whole congeries of competency-related statements for special education administrators. These included (a) familiarity with the policies and practices of general and special education administration; (b) ability to locate and obtain the support of community-based and agency-based services; and (c) willingness to facilitate the educa-

"With the advent of the 1970s. . .the need for full training and certification in general school administration became evident."

tional process by providing direction to school personnel and parents in the formulation of goals and programs to meet the needs and interests of handicapped children.

With the advent of the 1970s and the concurrent role of the administrator of special education becoming not only more complex but also moving away from a separate system of integrated services, the need for full training and certification in general school administration became evident. This position statement was further refined in a set of three working conferences sponsored by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (Bradshaw, Langton, & Patterson, 1972), all of which emphasized the need for "contiguity and continuity in general and special education." Participants at these conferences confirmed objectives for leadership personnel that had previously been voiced by professionals throughout the field. The resolutions coming out of the Western Interstate Commission conferences thus definitively stressed the need for expansion of training at all professional levels, but especially at the administrator level. This expansion was to include such areas as individualization of instruction, management by objectives, integration and reintegration of professional training, public relations, negotiation skills, and communications networking.

Similar postures were adopted by Heller and Forgnone (1972) and Marro and Kohl (1972), who emphasized the need for competency-based and experiential-based training programs in addition to the usual focus on fiscal management, organizational development, communication effectiveness, and facilities management. A national poll conducted by Nazzaro (1973, pp. 1-4) further corroborated these findings. Nazzaro found that priorities for training special education administrators should focus on diagnosis, alternative programming, and methods of determining program effectiveness.

Finally, a watershed was established when the 1973 Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) Delegate Assembly revised all existing policy statements on the organization and administration of special education. The revisions stated that the following skills were vital in special education administration.

1. Establish and maintain effective ways of identifying children with special education needs.
2. Assess the special needs of children to determine what kinds of special programs and services should be provided for them.
3. Plan and organize an appropriate variety of interventions or program alternatives for exceptional children.
4. Marshal the resources needed to conduct a comprehensive program of special education.
5. Use direction, coordination, and consultation, as required, to guide the efforts of all those who are engaged in the special education enterprise.
6. Conduct evaluation and research activities to reflect new emphasis, to incorporate new knowledge, and to improve special instruction and the quality of special services.
7. Involve community representatives in planning programs to ensure their understanding and support.
8. Conduct programs for staff development, such as inservice or continuing education programs.

Schipper and Kenowitz (1975, pp. 18-20), as part of their NASDSE Futures Report, endorsed CEC's 1973 position and further emphasized the need for additional training in such areas as (a) legal and policy studies, (b) program evaluation, (c) finance, (d) interagency collaboration (across all handicapping conditions), and (e) more imaginative uses of technology within the instructional setting.

General education administrative personnel have also endorsed such models for training special education leaders and have called for the design of studies to support such training initiatives. Barbacovi (1978), for example, called for the establishment of some longitudinal data to evaluate the success or failure of the individualized educational plan (IEP) as a management tool in itself.

More recently, Sterns et al (1980), in their first-year report of local implementation of PL 94-142, concluded that trained leadership personnel had made great strides in (a) developing procedures consistent with federal regulations; (b) devising strategies for expanding programs; and (c) resolving logistical problems in providing for IEPs, parent involvement, and due process hearings. Their findings do, however, alert trainers to the need for continual emphasis on basics such as full implementation, maximizing limited resources, and the changing traditional roles and organizational boundaries.

Certification Requirements

One very unmistakable signal that is emerging from this growing body of literature on priorities and needs for administrator training programs is the wisdom of balancing competency areas in special education with competency areas in general education. An example of this wisdom is found in the present trend of certification agencies throughout the nation, which, since 1978, have recognized the need to include some special education training for all types of professional personnel. Although considerable variation exists among the

"Every profession serving the public must be concerned with the continuing competency of its practitioners."

states in this area of certification, several areas of commonality may also be found. These areas have been previously mentioned as the core areas in our departmental design.

The Council of Exceptional Children (1976), reflecting the expectations generated by federal and state legislation on the handicapped, made seven specific recommendations to enable the states to further capitalize on areas of commonality and thereby reciprocally support each other.

1. Certification requirements should be sufficiently flexible to provide for the newly emerging and changing roles of special education personnel and to encourage experimentation and innovation in their preparation. Special education certification should be based upon the demonstration of competencies in the various functions to be performed.
2. Certification in the field of special education should be limited to a specific period of time with renewal based on relevant continuous professional development.
3. Certification in special education should be provided for those personnel who develop generic competencies to perform effectively with variously handicapped persons as well as for those who develop highly specialized competencies to work with some exceptional persons.
4. Preparation centers, upon approval from the appropriate state certification agency, should assume the responsibility for assessing and documenting the performances of program participants.
5. Procedures should be devised to facilitate reciprocity in the interstate transfer of special education credentials.
6. Responsibility and accountability for the continuing professional development and performance of special education personnel must rest mainly with the individual. Preparation and employment agencies should support, assist, and encourage ongoing professional development. Assuming that the opportunities for continuing professional development are present, the responsibility for using the opportunities rests with the individual.
7. Special education personnel have a professional responsibility to participate in the objective and systematic evaluation of themselves, colleagues, services, and programs to ensure continuous improvement of professional performance.

Every profession serving the public must be concerned with the continuing competency of its practitioners. When incompetency becomes widespread, it is met by public outcry and results in governmental regulation of the profession. The emphasis here, however, is not on professional regulation but on individual responsibility and a sense of professionalism on the part of the administrator to improve his or her knowledge and skills. Professional regulation would entail the development of a bureaucratic structure with all its attendant ills, whereas individual responsibility for continuing education would encourage diversity and creativity.

Undoubtedly, the emphasis on the continuing education of special education personnel will be greater in the future. The surge of interest in the topic is viewed as a reaction, in part, to the reduced turnover of school personnel that has been occurring over the past several years, as well as to the desire of educational personnel to upgrade their qualifications and fit themselves for changing roles in our rapidly changing schools.

Skill Repertoires

A review of the scant literature available on the topic of preparing personnel for leadership positions in special education also reveals some other rather distinctly recurring themes. Like Culbertson and Thompson (1980), Fields (1982), and Likert (1967), we have identified and implemented a set of leadership skills most needed in training programs for administrators. Without respect to rank orderings, they are oral and written communication skills, motivation techniques, performance-appraisal approaches, planning skills, organizing skills, time management techniques, decision-making skills, budgeting tools, delegation methods, meeting procedures, and interviewing/hiring/termination procedures.

Livingston (1977) concluded that managers are not taught in formal education programs what they most need to know to build successful careers in school administration. Recognizing this, the Gallaudet College program in special education administration utilizes reality-based field experiences and skill areas (Nevin, 1979) supplemented by formal coursework in three major categories—advocacy functions, leadership functions, and technical knowledge functions. These categories, which have been given further corroboration by the Bank Street College study of Klopf, Conroy, Cozzi, and Crow (1980), underscore an integral feature of Gallaudet's training model—the cognitive and procedural nature of the competencies required of special education administrators.

The following skill repertoires are a representative sampling of Gallaudet's menu of pedagogic and experiential program elements.

The politics of education is rapidly changing. Equally as rapidly must the

"Our expectation is to continue the emphasis on our scholar-practitioner model. . . ."

field's administrator preparation programs begin reordering their priorities and redefining the nature of the skills expected of future managers. (Cf., Wiles, Wiles & Bondi, 1981.)

Administrators will need to develop for the '80s effective techniques for motivating teachers to stay on the job. Although salary increases are needed, psychic rewards—which are often free—are also needed, and perhaps to an even greater degree (Hodgkinson, 1982).

Many administrators still believe that working 12-hour days and most weekends proves their dedication. To the contrary, it is probably proving nothing more than a lack of awareness of the leadership skills of time management, delegation, and stress management (Hodgkinson, 1982).

Decisiveness—the ability to recognize when a decision is required and to act quickly—is a key skill of effective administration. The primary concern facing school administrators during the '80s will be making decisions, and doing so in environments of scarcity. (Cf., Ford, 1977; Jesswald, 1977; Peterson & Peterson, 1982; Wiles, Wiles, & Bondi, 1981.)

Decisiveness, along with self-confidence, problem analysis, judgment, sociability, sensitivity, and respect for others, must become part of a leader's skill configuration (Alfonso, Firth, & Neville, 1981).

Students in administration programs frequently aspire to be planners, supervisors, middle managers, section chiefs in federal and state agencies, school heads, and chief executive officers. The skill repertoires of these students who are thus aiming at the bureaucratic, as opposed to the academic side of administration, must be practitioner oriented. (Cf., Mortimer, 1978, pp. 327-333.)

The educational administrator of the '80s must, among other things, be a planner and a mediator. Planning aims at being orderly, objective, logical, bureaucratic, technical, and somewhat impersonal. It is data based, facts oriented, and long range in scope. Planning skills include (a) setting of goals, (b) generating alternative ways of reaching these goals, (c) appraising the alternatives generated, (d) deciding on the most cost-effective strategy, (e) implementing that strategy, (f) evaluating the final outcome, and (g) communicating that outcome to the appropriate audience.

Mediation, on the other hand, tends to be more pluralistic, people oriented, democratic and short range. It is clearly a political process. Mediation skills include (a) formulating policy statements, (b) facilitating the expression of policy preferences among the group members being affected, (c) sharing information with such group members to show how their preferences relate to one another, (d) identifying points of agreement, (e) reconciling conflict by developing workable compromises, and (f) learning not to advocate one's own pet position but helping to effect the most desirable compromise possible.

Planners, in generating alternatives, are most often concerned with what ought to be. Mediators (politicians), on the other hand, settle for few alternatives and are most concerned with what is possible, usually ending up as poor planners. The compleat educational administrator must be both a planner and a politician. (Cf., Campbell, 1978, pp. 309-327.)

The major purpose of special education administrative organization is to provide and maintain the environmental conditions in schools that are most conducive to the growth and learning needs of children with handicaps.

The major functions commonly assigned to administrators of special education programs include (a) identifying needs, (b) matching needs with service provisions, (c) marshaling resources, (d) conducting evaluations and research activities, and (e) involving parents and community representatives. (Cf., Council of Exceptional Children, 1972.)

The essence of this training is intelligent action and advocacy on behalf of our constituents. To do less mandates failure in our intent and compromise in our product. Our graduates have assumed positions of leadership in local, state, federal, and higher education. Our expectation, therefore, is to continue the emphasis on our scholar-practitioner model as it was perceived by Goodrich C. White (President Emeritus, Emory University). White penned, in penetrating terms, a perception that even today evokes some familiar nods of the head.

> One of the most tragic failures I know of in college administration was that of a man who had become a college president after having served many years as a professor of educational administration. Without question, he "knew the book." In practice, however, something went wrong, and his brief tenure as president ended in turmoil and bitterness. My guess is that in this particular case human interest, concern for people, and a necessary element of patience were wholly lacking. The spirit of good administration was not there, however much the letter was being followed. (1957, p. 24)

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Training the Hearing-Impaired Student Teacher for the "Hearing Classroom"

Problems and Solutions

David S. Martin

Public Law 94-142 mandated the assignment of children with special needs to the least restrictive environment, i.e., the environment appropriate to their particular needs. Although *mainstreaming* is never mentioned in the law, the mandate has resulted in the placement of many disabled children into so-called normal classrooms. Interestingly, however, while the law is explicit about a least restrictive environment for handicapped children, it says nothing about handicapped *teachers*.

Since the mid-1970s and, especially since the state-by-state implementations of PL 94-142, state teacher certification bureaus have increasingly required either full certification or some systematic coursework in *regular* education for all teachers seeking certification in *special* education. As a result, the theory goes, teachers of special education will not only have a broader background in education as a professional field, they also will have proper preparation for working with mainstreamed handicapped children.

For many years, Gallaudet College has been known for its teacher-education program for teachers of the hearing impaired. That master's degree program has graduated teachers who are employed throughout the United States and in several foreign countries. Both hearing and hearing-impaired graduate students matriculate through this program. Historically, the transition from the program to a classroom of hearing-impaired children has been smooth for hearing-impaired graduate students. But with the recent changes in certification laws for special education teachers that require some training in normal (or, for this group, hearing) classrooms, a very special challenge has arisen: How should this program proceed to give hearing-impaired, preservice teachers both background and practicum experiences in hearing environments?

One answer would have been to seek waivers and petition for special exemption from the requirement. Another would have been to defy or legally challenge particular state regulations because of their inherent unfairness to hearing-impaired people. These regulations could be interpreted as a violation of rights to job access under Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act. While both choices may be made by individual students, Gallaudet elected a third option—to develop a program to meet the requirement.

The Gallaudet Program

Almost all of the students enrolled in the Gallaudet College undergraduate liberal arts program, unlike those in the graduate program, are hearing impaired. In the spring of 1980, the college approved a new undergraduate education program within the liberal arts framework for Gallaudet undergraduates. The program focuses exclusively on regular education, and it follows closely the requirements needed for teacher certification in the District of Columbia and the 27 reciprocity states that are members of the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education Certification (NASDTEC) network.

The concept behind this program is certainly not new. For years, "handicapped" people have obtained credentials as teachers through other regular education, teacher-training programs. A few examples follow:

1. California State University at Northridge (CSUN) has for several years enabled hearing-impaired, preservice teacher trainees to elect student teaching assignments in hearing classrooms as part of their work toward dual certification in regular and special education.
2. A few persons with extreme visual impairments have obtained certification and jobs in regular education.
3. Orthopedically handicapped persons have received certification and jobs on a similarly small scale.
4. Elsewhere on the Gallaudet campus, both the Home Economics Department and the master's program in deaf education have provided opportunities for hearing-impaired students to be teacher assistants in regular classrooms.

However, the Gallaudet program may be unique in its express intent to prepare students for full certification in regular education by *requiring* them to student-teach in classrooms of hearing children.

The education program is the only campus undergraduate major program that has admission requirements. Each student is screened according to grade-point average (2.75 or better), written references from former or current professors, clarity of goals as expressed through a written application, and evidence of potential success and commitment through a personal interview with an admissions committee. About 65% of the applicants are accepted.

The level of hearing loss in this group ranges from several students with moderate hearing loss who, with amplification, can function both receptively and expressively through either voice or sign language, to several students with profound hearing loss who function receptively and expressively only through sign language and some lipreading. The latter group presents the greatest challenge; it is they who "raise the eyebrows" of hearing people when they announce their intention to work with hearing children. While many of these students will go on to graduate study in deaf education and will teach deaf children, a few may teach in regular classrooms or in mainstreamed classrooms of hearing and hearing-impaired children.

A critical point of difference is found between the training experienced by a hearing teacher of the hearing impaired and a hearing-impaired teacher of the hearing impaired. Both follow the same sequence of courses (regular education coursework and practicum followed by deaf education coursework and practicum). But the hearing trainees begin their training using media and methods that are in the same modality as those which they previously have experienced as learners; they are learning about regular education and practice teaching in a regular or hearing classroom. Later they move to the unfamiliar—learning about deafness and practice teaching in that special education setting using media and methods (especially sign language) that are probably completely new to them. Thus, training follows the accepted educational principle of moving from the familiar to the unfamiliar.

On the other hand, hearing-impaired trainees begin their training, again in regular education, with media and methods that may be in a new modality for them. (Profoundly deaf people may never have worked or lived in an environment that depends on aural/oral communication and does not use signed communication.) When they later specialize in deaf education, they return to the familiar; they learn about media and methods (especially about teaching in sign language) that have been part of their experience as learners. Thus, the deaf trainee in this sequence must not only adapt early to a new learning modality, but also must have an unusual commitment to becoming a teacher in order to survive the tremendous dissonance set up by this leap into the unfamiliar, before returning to the familiar.

For these reasons, we can truly say that this group of preservice teachers is and must be special in a very special way.

What could a preservice program look like for such a group? The answer is, "highly similar to any other preservice training program in regular education in the areas of early childhood, elementary, and secondary education." That answer means coursework in educational foundations and specific curriculum area methods, *and* a supervised student-teaching practicum with only hearing children.

We are by now familiar with the self-fulfilling prophecy dangers reported by Rosenthal and Jacobson in their research in *Pygmalion in the Classroom* (1968) regarding teacher expectations of children. We must apply that familiarity to teacher training as well. If we maintain the same high expectations of handicapped as of nonhandicapped, preservice teachers, we will be disappointed in neither group's performance.

The coursework has been relatively easy to establish because coursework in these areas (as with all coursework at Gallaudet College) is conducted in the simultaneous communication method (using sign language; voice, if possible; and lipreading at the same time). But, what of the student-teaching experience in a hearing classroom?

A Least-Restrictive Practicum Environment

Herein lies the program's uniqueness, because every effort is made to make the practicum the least restrictive environment for both student teacher and child. The practicum includes the following components:

1. Like other teacher-preparation programs, the student-teaching experience is preceded by two other levels of gradual classroom involvement.
   a. several systematic observations, with subsequent analysis, in hearing classrooms;
   b. several consecutive weeks of participation as a volunteer aide in a hearing classroom.
2. Each student develops a specific personal action plan that outlines how he or she will function in a hearing classroom. The plan is individualized so that each student can tailor it to his or her own degree of hearing impairment. Students use one or more of the following strategies in their plans:
   a. teaching the cooperating teacher and class some important facts about deafness, through presentation of visual material and (if the student is comfortable using speech) through verbal explanation.
   b. providing some instruction about human differences and what it is like to be a member of a minority with an invisible handicap.
   c. giving a series of mini-lessons using sign language. Children invariably respond with high interest and pride to these opportunities. As with the learning of new spoken languages, the young acquire this visual language with amazing alacrity. Also, some agreement is made about how the student and the children will be relying on other communication modes, especially visual explanations.
   d. teaching in a team fashion with the cooperating teacher. The preservice teacher takes responsibility for work with increasingly larger groups—a feature of most traditional student-teaching programs for hearing people.

"For some children, it takes time to understand that the interpreter is only the ears and voice of the student teacher, not another teacher."

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   e. using an interpreter as a translator between the student-teacher's sign language and the children's vocal language, and vice versa, in those cases where the student teacher has a profound hearing loss and/or does not use voice. For some children, it takes time to understand that the interpreter is only the ears and voice of the student teacher, not another teacher.
3. Continual and regular conferencing occurs between the student and the cooperating teacher to ensure feedback on the specific problems and successes in the communication process between student and children, cooperating teacher, parents, and school administration. Such regular conferences have again been a long-standing fixture of practicum experiences, but serve a critical function in this special practicum situation.
4. A college supervisor makes weekly observations and critiques, as is done in most teacher-training programs.
5. Gallaudet College provides inservice orientation for cooperating teachers to inform them about deafness and how to work in partnership with a hearing-impaired adult.

The steps in item two have turned out to be the most critical to implementing the student-teaching experience for this special group of preservice teachers.

Attitude Study Design

One year after this practicum program was implemented, hearing-impaired students, parents, teachers, children, and administrators participated in an attitudinal survey regarding this experience.

The attitude surveys were administered to all student teachers, cooperating teachers, pupils at the secondary school level, and principals before the student-teaching period began and after it ended. An attitude survey also was administered to randomly selected parents at the end of the student-teaching period.

Each survey asked the respondents to provide information in four areas.

1. The respondents ranked their greatest concerns from a list that included the student-teacher's ability to (a) maintain classroom control, (b) communicate with pupils, (c) communicate with the cooperating teacher, (d) understand the curriculum, and (e) develop positive relationships with pupils.
2. The respondents indicated the anticipated (pre-practicum) and observed (post-practicum) benefits of placing a hearing-impaired student teacher in a hearing classroom.
3. The respondents could add other general comments. The post-practicum surveys for cooperating teachers, pupils, and parents also asked whether or not the respondent would favor working again with a hearing-impaired student teacher.
4. The respondents answered several specialized questions related to the teacher-preparation curriculum. The answers were used as formative evaluations for the program itself; that information, however, is not directly relevant to the present investigation and is, therefore, not reported in this analysis.

Respondents rank ordered the first and second items on a scale of 1-6, with 6 having the greatest weight and 1 having the least. Data were tallied and summarized within respondent groups; intragroup average weights for each response choice were computed.

Appropriate tests for significant differences between weighted means were performed for differences between groups on pre-practicum surveys and between groups on post-practicum surveys, and also for differences within groups comparing pre- and post-practicum surveys. No significant differences were found due to the clearly small size of the groups within each category. However, inspection of the tables reveals several important and clear trends in directionality of changes. Thus, the analysis of these results leads to a discussion of these evident trends and their implications.

Attitude Study Results

Tables 1 through 5 present the pre- and post-practicum survey data for each response group, with averaged relative weights shown for each response choice. Only response items with an average relative weight of more than 1.0 are reported.

Analysis and Discussion of Results

Examination of the five tables both within groups and across groups reveals trends which are important to note.

Effective Communication. This was, of course, of prime concern to all groups at the beginning. The scores ranged across groups from 3.7 to 5.2 on the 6-point scale of concern. On the post-practicum survey for all five groups, however, communication scores clearly fell to a lower level of concern, ranging from a 1.2 to a 3.0. These results corroborated the systematic observations made by the college that communication, indeed, succeeded for both senders and receivers in this unusual environment.

Table 1
Attitudes of Hearing-Impaired Student Teachers
Toward Placement in Hearing Classrooms
N = 9

Pre-Practicum Survey December 1981		Post-Practicum Survey March 1982	
Responses	Averaged Weights[a]	Responses	Averaged Weights[a]
Greatest Concerns			
Communication with pupils	5.2	Classroom control	5.7
Classroom control	5.2	Understanding the curriculum	3.1
Understanding the curriculum	4.8	Communication with pupils	2.8
Children's response to me as a hearing-impaired person	3.3	Communication with parents	1.0
Benefits Expected or Observed			
Skill in lesson planning	3.0	Complete acceptance of me by the school community	2.4
Improve my confidence as a hearing-impaired person	2.5	Increased understanding of myself as a hearing-impaired person	2.2
Learn classroom control	2.0		

[a] 6 = highest concern

Table 2
Attitudes of Normally Hearing Cooperating Teachers
Toward Work with Hearing-Impaired Student Teachers
N = 9

Pre-Practicum Survey December 1981		Post-Practicum Survey March 1982	
Responses	Averaged Weights[a]	Responses	Averaged Weights[a]
Greatest Concerns			
Communication with pupils	4.8	Ability to control classroom	4.7
Possible negative parent's reactions	3.8	Understanding the curriculum	3.0
Ability to control classroom	3.0	Communication with pupils	1.9
Pupil's reactions	3.0	Communication with parents	1.1
Understanding the curriculum	2.8		
Benefits Expected or Observed			
Pupils will learn to accept handicapped persons	5.0	Communication improved in many ways	4.9
Communication will be improved in many ways	4.0	A general positive experience for the school community	2.4
Pupils will be generally enriched	3.5		

Note. On the post-practicum survey, *all* respondents said they would be willing to work again with a hearing-impaired student teacher.
[a] 6 = highest concern

"All student teachers also successfully evolved strategies for classroom control through their awareness of what was happening throughout the classroom at all times. . . ."

Anxiety about Pupil Reaction. Anxiety about interaction between hearing and hearing-impaired people was evident in the pre-practicum survey responses of student teachers, cooperating teachers, and pupils. However, by the end of the practicum these anxieties had faded and did not appear in the concerns. Prior attitude research indicates that unfamiliar stimuli tend to be treated with "a combination of curiosity and disdain" (Boucher & Osgood, 1964). However, repeated exposure to a meaningful and familiar stimulus object tends to enhance the person's attitude toward the object (Zajonc, 1968). Thus, our investigation corroborated this research. By the end of the student-teaching period, anxiety about attitudes toward the hearing-impaired person had disappeared, probably because of familiarity and positive interaction.

Classroom Control. Control was a clearly recurring concern. It appeared in the pre-practicum as a middle-range concern; in the post-practicum survey for several groups, it outranked all other concerns. For both student teachers and cooperating teachers, the post-practicum survey indicated a heightened concern about that area.

This level of concern about classroom control on the post-practicum survey may indeed reflect some of the difficulties unique to being a hearing-impaired person working with hearing children. Student teachers were observed to have some initial problems with awareness of classroom noise level, for example; *but,* all student teachers also successfully evolved strategies for classroom control through their awareness of what was happening throughout the classroom at all times (e.g., prearranged signals from the interpreter, visual cues, etc.). This level of concern is far more likely to reflect only the normal increased level of awareness of control that results from practical experience and which is observed in all teacher-education programs.

The very fact that control had become an important concern is in

Table 3
Attitudes of Hearing Pupils toward Placement of Hearing-Impaired Student Teachers in Hearing Classrooms

N = 73

Pre-Practicum Survey December 1981		Post-Practicum Survey March 1982	
Responses	Averaged Weights[a]	Responses	Averaged Weights[a]
Greatest Concerns			
Possible negative reaction of my class to a deaf person	3.8	Ability to control the classroom	3.2
Ability of student teacher to communicate with me	3.7	Understanding our curriculum	3.2
Ability to control the classroom	3.1	Ability of student teacher to communicate with me	3.0
Understanding our curriculum	2.2	Need for student teacher to communicate with my parents	2.9
Reactions of my parents	1.4		
Benefits Expected or Observed			
I will learn sign language	5.0	I learned some sign language	3.5
Student teacher will learn how to teach	2.0	I enjoyed a chance to work with a deaf person	3.3
I will improve my attitude toward deaf people	1.7		

Note. On the post-practicum survey, 70 out of the 73 respondents said they would be willing to work again with a hearing-impaired student teacher.

[a] 6 = highest concern

“Pupils were interested in having their parents meet the student teacher; parents wanted to do so; and cooperating teachers wanted to bring about such contact.”

Table 4
Attitudes of Hearing Parents toward Placement of Hearing-Impaired Student Teachers in Classrooms of Hearing Pupils

$N = 35$

Post-Practicum Survey	
Responses	Averaged Weights[a]
Greatest Concerns	
Need for student teachers to have some communication with parents	2.5
Ability of student teacher to control classroom	1.4
Ability of student teacher to communicate effectively with my child	1.2
Benefits Observed	
My child learned that a handicapped person can contribute to society	4.3
My child learned some sign language	3.8

Note. No pre-practicum survey was administered. On the post-practicum survey, 12 out of 35 parents listed no concerns or problems; 33 out of 35 parents said they would be pleased to have their children work again with a hearing-impaired student teacher.
[a] 6 = highest concern

itself testimony to the successful normalization of this student-teaching experience, in spite of its initial communication challenges.

Communication with Parents. The need for this kind of communication was clearly indicated by the results. Pupils were interested in having their parents meet the student teacher; parents wanted to do so; and cooperating teachers wanted to bring about such contact. The student teachers were relatively less concerned, perhaps because of their focus on classroom procedures and content. Some parent contact occurred through PTA meetings and parent conferences. However, these survey results will be used to support a special effort in subsequent years to plan for more systematic contact between parents and student teachers.

Increased Awareness and Sensitivity. Pupils clearly became more sensitive to the communication process and to hearing-impaired persons. This finding was supported by observation by both school and college personnel throughout the student-teaching period. In addition, pupils' clear prepracticum survey interest in sign language had been at least partially fulfilled as a by-product of the experience, according to their post-practicum responses. In addition, parents noted positive reactions to their children's opportunities to work with a handicapped person; this attitude is indeed encouraging in that these parents are valuing more than just subject matter.

Observed Benefits. The student teachers' post-practicum item on observed benefits showed that they not only learned skills in teaching per se, but also successfully increased their self-understanding as hearing-impaired persons in a hearing world. Though not a principal objective of student teaching, any enhancement of this self-image is critical. Our society is still largely unaware of the special needs of hearing-impaired persons; a student going from a special environment for the hearing impaired (such as Gallaudet College) into the world of work must make a critical personal adjustment or readjustment. Thus, significant experience at the undergraduate level that requires guided self-examination and/or self-redefinition in this arena can only be positive in terms of the individual's future.

Related Research

In further analyzing the results, it is useful to refer to what prior research has shown about the ways in which deaf people view the hearing and vice versa for the age groups closely related to the students in this study. Schroedel and Schiff (1972) found that deaf people believe that hearing people are more negative toward them than they in fact are; in addition, these authors reported a mildly positive attitude toward deaf college students by hearing college students. In fact, deaf students manifested more negative attitudes toward deafness than did the hearing students in a comparable group.

In a separate study of a dormitory at the Rochester Institute of Technology, attitudes among the hearing students toward deaf students became more negative after six months; presumably the phenomenon was due both to communication problems and to “unmet social expectations” by the deaf students (Emerton & Rothman, 1978).

In a longitudinal study of disability group acceptance, investigators found that attitudes toward the disabled are generally stable; however, the greatest tolerance was found to be toward the orthopedically disabled, followed by the sensorially disabled, with the psychogenically

"Positive attitudes toward the hearing-impaired student teachers were sustained throughout the practicum period."

Table 5
Attitudes of Principals toward Placement of Hearing-Impaired Student Teachers in Classrooms of Hearing Pupils

N = 3

Pre-Practicum Survey December 1981		Post-Practicum Survey March 1982	
Responses	Averaged Weights[a]	Responses	Averaged Weights[a]
Greatest Concerns			
Ability of student teacher to communicate effectively with pupils	5.0	Ability to understand the curriculum	4.0
Ability of student teacher to control classroom	3.3	Ability to control classroom	3.2
Ability of student teacher to understand the curriculum	1.6	Ability to communicate effectively	2.8
Benefits Expected or Observed			
Increased sensitivity of school community to needs of handicapped persons	5.0	Increase in communication skills of everyone in the school	5.8
Increase in communication skills for everyone in the school	4.1	Improvement in ability of student teacher to control classroom	2.9

[a] 6 = highest concern

and socially disabled in the third and fourth positions of relative stability (Harasymiw, Horne, & Lewis, 1976).

The results of the present study indicate an interesting maintenance of a positive attitude by all clientele (principals, teachers, pupils, and parents) toward the hearing-impaired college students from the time before student teaching began, through to the end of that period. Thus, this finding corroborates the earlier findings of Harasymiw et al. in the sense of stability of attitudes—fortunately positive attitudes toward the hearing-impaired student teachers were sustained throughout the practicum period.

Regarding attitudes of school principals, Ayer's research indicates that young administrators tend to be more positive in their attitudes toward handicapped teachers than do older administrators. Ayer also found that administrators as a group, however, irrespective of age, reject deaf people as potential teachers in regular elementary schools (1970). In addition, a separate study of both elementary and secondary school administrators found that only 15% of each group accepted the idea of a deaf person as a future teacher; the others expressed concern about the deaf person's ability to maintain classroom control (Nikoloff, 1962). In view of these two studies, our results (with an admittedly small and unsystematic sample) indicate that classroom control was also of prime concern to the three principals in our sample, both before and after the student-teaching period. However, interviews revealed that principals' post-praticum concern about classroom control was no greater than it was for hearing preservice teachers at the same stage of training. (We have no evidence about these principals' view of these student teachers as potential full-time teachers.)

We would assert that these results clearly indicate these students' success in establishing and maintaining classroom communication, positive interpersonal relationships, heightened sensitivity toward deafness by the hearing persons involved in this experience, and a gradually increasing repertoire of teaching skills in a sequence that is typical of that generally observed in hearing student teachers.

Conclusion

As with any new program that takes some risks, we have not found

> **"Institutions must continue to exchange information about problems and successes in this arena. . . ."**

all of the answers to all of the questions and problems. Without question, the communication challenges for the profoundly deaf students who do not use voice communication remain high; careful and individualized attention to appropriate placement and supervision will continue to be essential. In addition, profoundly deaf individuals find another challenge in developing strong written-English skills because they have not had exposure to the richness and subtleties of spoken English. The fact that their native language is American Sign Language (which has a syntax very different from English) may also affect their written English. At Gallaudet, we continue to counsel and tutor students to improve their written communication skills, mindful of the vigorous public pressure today on all teacher-preparation programs to ensure that teachers themselves have the basic skills they will be expected to teach to children.

The participants at a special 1980 Conference on Disabled Educators reported that they experienced four types of barriers as educators: bias and ignorance, lack of communication from nonhandicapped educators, lack of accommodation, and inappropriate counseling. It was suggested that assertiveness had been essential for overcoming these barriers (McNett & Merchant, 1981).

Today very few professionals would dare to deny that handicapped individuals are entitled to have access to the education profession in the least restrictive manner appropriate for them. Those who have doubts might ask why hearing-impaired people should be trained to work with hearing children. One answer is that such opportunity is the right of all individuals under the law. We would agree, but that is not the whole reason. A second answer is that providing such opportunity is democratic in the sense that it recognizes the importance of equality of opportunity in the American way of life. That answer, too, is valid, although condescending. A third answer is that providing a chance for handicapped individuals to work with normal children gives those children an important experience with human diversity and assists them in understanding handicapped people in many significant ways. Again, we accept this as only a partial answer because it implies a type of exploitation of the handicapped person. But a fourth possibility may be the beginning, middle, and end of the real answer: Such individuals might just become *top quality teachers*, and that is justification enough, indeed!

What lies ahead for teacher-preparation institutions for working with handicapped preservice teachers? Collaboration between the institutions themselves and school practicum sites will remain essential; as we have seen, special people (teachers and principals) are needed to pave the way for a program that features some special preservice teachers. In addition, institutions must continue to exchange information about problems and successes in this arena—this is one wheel that need not be reinvented across the nation.

In the years ahead we should expect and welcome more and different types of handicaps in our preservice teacher populations. These people form a wellspring of talent that up to now has gone untapped by our schools. Our challenge is, will we really be ready to include them in our programs, and will we remember to keep our expectations high?

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Preparing Teachers of Multihandicapped Hearing-Impaired Students

Thomas W. Jones
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Interest in the education of multihandicapped hearing-impaired (MHHI) students has grown during the past few years. Programs for the hearing impaired have become concerned because they have seen their populations changing to include more children identified as having educationally significant disabilities in addition to hearing handicaps. These disabilities range in severity from mild behavior problems to multiple intellectual, physical, sensory, and emotional handicaps. Such additional handicaps might include vision impairment, mental retardation, and physical handicaps such as cerebral palsy. The MHHI students include those classified as multihandicapped, developmentally disabled, severely handicapped, and deaf-blind.

Accompanying the growth of programs for MHHI students is the need for preparation programs for their teachers. This need has been well documented (e.g., Flathouse, 1979; Stewart, 1971, 1982; Tweedie & Shroyer, 1982). In addition to need, however, a variety of variables must be considered when developing personnel-preparation programs. Perhaps the most important of these variables is conceptualization of the educational needs of the student population to be served by program graduates. Unfortunately in the MHHI area, even though the general need for personnel-preparation programs is clear, numbers, specific characteristics, and needs of MHHI students themselves are very ambiguous (Flathouse, 1979; Griffing, 1981). This confusion is partially attributable to multiple terminology and classification systems and to inconsistent criteria for determining the educational needs of the students (Jones, 1982). Characteristic needs of MHHI students must be identified, however, in order to develop both the role functions to be performed by preparation-program graduates and the competencies necessary to fill those roles. These roles and competencies are essential objectives of the program. In addition, the program content must be designed to enable mastery of the competencies by trainees in the program.

Gallaudet College established a preparation program for teachers of MHHI children in 1975. As the program has evolved, an implicit curriculum rationale has also evolved based on assumptions about MHHI population characteristics, personnel roles for which teachers are needed, and the competencies needed to fill those roles. These assumptions are very difficult to validate, however. For example, Jones (1982) discussed the difficulties in defining an MHHI population, and Shores, Cegelka, and Nelson (1973) showed the lack of empirical validity for special-education teacher competencies.

ASHA Dissemination Project

In 1981, the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) undertook a dissemination project through a grant from the Administration on Developmental Disabilities (DD) to assist states in improving the provision of services to MHHI students. To meet the DD mandate of encouraging professionals to work in this area, one component of the project was designed to review and disseminate the Gallaudet College MHHI teacher-preparation curriculum. The initial step in the curriculum review was to verify the program rationale by comparing the opinions of leaders in the MHHI field with elements of the Gallaudet curriculum. Information was sought concerning these questions:

1. For which subcategories of MHHI students is the need for personnel preparation the greatest?
2. For which personnel roles is the need for trained personnel the greatest?
3. What competencies are needed by teachers of MHHI students?

Survey Respondents

Questionnaires were mailed to 31 individuals who had demonstrated leadership and long-term involvement in the education of MHHI students by either (a) writing articles in professional journals concerning the education of MHHI children, (b) presenting papers at ASHA-sponsored conferences concerning the MHHI, or (c) becoming leaders in well-known programs for MHHI students. An effort was made to include individuals familiar with service-delivery networks in the areas of hearing impairment, developmental disabilities, severe handicaps, and deaf-blindness. Of the 31 survey recipients, 19 (61%) returned their questionnaires. Survey respondents included 10 teacher trainees or researchers, 4 practitioners, 4 support personnel (e.g., audiologists), and 1 administrator. They were equally distributed among the eastern, central, and western United States.

MHHI Population Characteristics

The first area investigated attempted to identify those MHHI population characteristics and needs that have implications for personnel-preparation programs. Seventeen MHHI subcategories were selected to enable clear communication about the characteristics of the students involved. For example, to reduce confusion about whether the usual term *deaf-blind* includes those who are not functioning at a retarded level or those who are not totally blind, three more specific categories were used (hearing-impaired blind, hearing-impaired visually impaired, and hearing-impaired visually impaired mentally retarded). Giving discrete, commonly understood or operationally defined categories (e.g., the levels of mental retardation defined in 1977 by Grossman) from which learning characteristics may be inferred was intended to elicit consistent, valid responses. Because need itself is a global and ambiguous concept, survey respondents rated each of the MHHI subcategories in terms of three separate variables.

1. Adequacy of Present Services (e.g., identifying subgroups where services are least adequate)—Respondents were asked to check the four or five MHHI subcategories for which services are least adequate. These responses are summarized in Table 1.
2. Intensity of Training Necessary for Competent Service Delivery (e.g., reading vs. observation vs. practicum, etc.)—Respondents were asked to indicate the level of training and experience they felt was important for each MHHI subcategory on a 5-point rating scale ranging from "essential" to "not important." Ratings were summed for each subcategory and are shown in Table 2.
3. The Present Availability of Well-trained Teachers (e.g., whether available in most or only a few programs)—Respondents were asked to rate each MHHI subcategory on a 3-point scale ranging from high to low availability. Ratings were summed for each subcategory and are shown in Table 3.

Ranks are shown for interpreting Tables 1-3 because of the low number of respondents and lack of confidence that the intervals between scores are equal. Average ranks are shown for identical scores only. Raw scores are presented only for the convenience of readers who wish to judge the relative differences among the subcategories.

The data in Tables 1-3 imply that MHHI personnel-preparation programs should prepare teachers for more complex students, generally those who may be severely or profoundly handicapped and those with more than two handicaps. The need for personnel for more mildly involved students is not as great. This is consistent with the prediction reported by Tweedie and Baud (1981) that traditional residential schools for the blind and deaf will admit more low-functioning students.

Personnel Roles and Service-Delivery Arrangements

Personnel roles, the functions personnel-preparation program graduates will fill, may serve as objectives for those programs. For example, a program that stresses the assessment role of teachers of MHHI

Table 1
Adequacy of Services for Students with
Educationally Significant Hearing Loss and Accompanying Handicaps

Accompanying Handicaps	Number of Responses	Rank
Autism	9	2
Severe Behavioral/Emotional Impairment	9	
Language Learning Disabilities	9	
Profound Mental Retardation	7	4.5
Vision Impairment/Mental Retardation and Cerebral Palsy	7	
Mental Retardation and Cerebral Palsy	6	6
Visual Motor Learning Disabilities	5	8
Physical Disabilities	5	
Visual Impairment and Mental Retardation	5	
Severe Cerebral Palsy	4	11
Moderate Mental Retardation	4	
Severe Mental Retardation	4	
Mild Behavioral/Emotional Impairment	3	13.5
Low Vision	3	
Mild Mental Retardation	1	15.5
Blindness	1	
Mild Cerebral Palsy	0	17

Note. Ranking is from low adequacy (high need) to high adequacy (low need). Score reflects number of times subcategory was indicated as receiving "least adequate" services.

“Trainees receive extensive training concerning both hearing-impaired and MHHI students.”

Table 2
Importance of Intense Training in Preparation for Working with Students with Educationally Significant Hearing Loss and Accompanying Handicaps

Accompanying Handicaps	Score	Rank
Severe Cerebral Palsy	88	1
Visual Impairment, Mental Retardation, and Cerebral Palsy	82	2.5
Severe Behavioral/Emotional Impairment	82	
Severe Mental Retardation	75	5
Profound Mental Retardation	75	
Mild Behavioral/Emotional Impairment	75	
Blindness	77	7
Visual Motor Learning Disabilities	76	8
Mental Retardation and Cerebral Palsy	75	9
Moderate Mental Retardation	74	10
Mild Mental Retardation	73	11
Vision Impairment and Mental Retardation	72	12.5
Language Learning Disabilities	72	
Low Vision	70	14
Autism	69	15
Physical Disabilities	60	16
Mild Cerebral Palsy	52	17

students could prepare graduates to become diagnosticians. Alternatively, programs may stress the prevocational training or parent education functions of program graduates. Survey respondents were asked to identify the availability of nine service roles for teachers of MHHI students. Their responses on a 3-point scale were summed across the 17 MHHI subcategories. These sums are shown and ranked in Table 4.

The data in Table 4 imply that the greatest MHHI service needs are parent and family information and support services, well-trained teachers, and vocational training programs for high-school-age students. They show that programs for infants and specialized support services (e.g., speech and language therapy) are most available. The data should not be interpreted to imply, however, that the availability of any of those services is adequate at the present time.

MHHI Teacher Competencies

A third category of questions that survey respondents answered was concerned with competencies needed by teachers of MHHI students. Competencies determine the structure of teacher-preparation programs—they may be the basis for course and practicum objectives, content, and evaluation (Shores, Cegelka, & Nelson, 1973). Survey respondents were asked to generate five or six competencies they felt were most important for teachers of MHHI students. When similar responses were grouped, 16 competency areas were identified. These competency areas are listed in Table 5.

Comparison with Gallaudet Program

The Gallaudet College MHHI teacher-preparation program is a two-year, four-semester, graduate-level specialization within the Department of Education. It includes 57 credit hours of coursework and practicum experiences. The trainees majoring in MHHI complete 29 hours of required coursework related to general education and education of the hearing impaired. The course topics include simultaneous communication, language and speech development, audiology, education and psychology, and research. In addition, MHHI majors take 28 credit hours specifically on the multihandicapped hearing impaired. Therefore, the trainees receive extensive training concerning both hearing-impaired and MHHI students. The program is based on 27 performance and knowledge competencies. These competencies provide a framework for the courses and field experiences that comprise the MHHI specialization. Table 6 shows all of the courses required for this major. The specialized MHHI courses are listed in Table 7.

Summary

Survey respondents indicated that (a) teachers need preparation most greatly for working with the more severely impaired MHHI students,

Table 3
Availability of Well-Trained Teachers of Students with Educationally Significant Hearing Losses and Accompanying Handicaps

Accompanying Handicaps	Score	Rank
Severe Behavioral/Emotional Impairment	48	1
Vision Impairment/Mental Retardation, and Cerebral Palsy	48	
Autism	45	3.5
Vision Impairment and Mental Retardation	45	
Profound Mental Retardation	44	5
Severe Cerebral Palsy	43	6
Severe Mental Retardation	41	7.5
Mental Retardation and Cerebral Palsy	41	
Physical Disabilities	40	9
Low Vision	38	10
Language Learning Disabilities	37	11
Mild Behavioral/Emotional Impairment	36	13
Mild Cerebral Palsy	36	
Blindness	36	
Visual Motor Learning Disabilities	35	15
Mild Mental Retardation	33	16.5
Moderate Mental Retardation	33	

Note. Ranking is from low availability (high need) to high availability (low need).

Table 4
Availability of Services for MHHI Students Ranked from Low to High Availability

Service Categories	Score	Rank
Parent/Family Information and Support Services	717	1
Well-Trained Teachers	680	2
Specialized Vocational Programs for 16–21 Year Olds	672	3
Appropriate Planning and Placement Mechanisms	640	4
Specialized Educational Programs for 14–21 Year Olds	624	5
Assessment Services	623	6
Specialized Educational Programs for 3–13 Year Olds	617	7
Specialized Programs for Infants (Newborn–3 Year Olds)	574	8
Specialized Support Services (e.g., speech or language therapy, audiology, physical therapy)	557	9

Table 5
Most Important Competencies for Teachers of MHHI Students

Competency Area	Number of Times Mentioned
Assessment-Related Competencies	
Select Appropriate Domains for Instruction	14
Assessment Skills in Appropriate Curricular Areas	9
Planning-Related Competencies	
Task and Behavior Analysis Skills	6
Establish and Write Clear Objectives	5
Instruction-Related Competencies	
Behavior and Social Skill Management	11
Skills in Alternative Communication Systems	9
Adapt and Design Instructional Materials and Activities	4
Prevocational and Vocational Skill Development	2
Knowledge Competencies	
Understanding of Normal Development	6
Knowledge of Handicapping Conditions	5
Understanding of Learning Theory	3
Other Competencies	
Monitoring of Student Progress	11
Specific Attitudes and Personal Characteristics	7
Work with Support Services and Other Staff	7
Parent Training and Communication Skills	5
Program and Time-Management Skills	3

Table 6
Gallaudet College MHHI Teacher-Preparation Program

Semester	Coursework	Credits
	General Education Core Courses	10
II	Parent/Infant Education	
III	Social Foundations of Education	
III	Introduction to Research	
III	Diagnosis and Remediation of Reading Problems	
	Education of the Hearing Impaired	19
I	Education & Psychology of the Hearing Impaired	
I	Language and Psycholinguistics for Teachers	
I, II	Simultaneous Communication I & II	
II	Speech Development of the Hearing Impaired	
I	Introduction to Audiology	
II	Audiologic Habilitation	
	Education of the Multihandicapped Courses	18
	Field-based Experiences in Education of the Multihandicapped	10
	Total	57

Note. This is the proposed curriculum for the MHHI teacher-preparation program.

"Two required courses deal exclusively with parent education and prevocational training."

and (b) personnel are most needed in the areas of parent/family training, direct teaching, and specialized vocational training. The respondents also indicated 16 competency areas which teachers of MHHI students should master. Each of these elements is manifested in the MHHI teacher-preparation program at Gallaudet College. While the Gallaudet program attempts to prepare teachers for all ages and levels of MHHI students, emphasis is placed on education of the severely handicapped. Two required courses deal exclusively with parent education and prevocational training. Finally, all of the competencies listed by survey respondents are included in the more extensive list undergirding the Gallaudet program.

Any curriculum, including those used in teacher preparation, should be based on a rationale. In teacher preparation, curriculum rationales are often linked to assumptions about characteristics of the population with which program graduates will work, the roles they will fulfill, and the competencies necessary for success in those roles. In the present survey, such assumptions implicit in Gallaudet College's preparation program for teachers of MHHI students are consistent with the perceptions of leaders in the MHHI field.

Table 7
Specialized Coursework in Education of the MHHI
Gallaudet College

Semester	Coursework	Credits
I (Fall)	Educational Management of Physical, Intellectual, and Vision Disabilities in the Multihandicapped	3
	Behavior Modification	2
	Introductory Field Experience in Multiple Disabilities	1
II (Spring)	Development of Self-Help and Motor Skills in the Multihandicapped	2
	Development of Language and Cognition in the Multihandicapped	3
	Clinical Practicum I	1
III (Fall)	Prevocational Training for the Multihandicapped	3
	Teaching Academics to the Multihandicapped	2
	Clinical Practicum II	2
IV (Spring)	Seminar in Multiple Disabilities	3
	Student Teaching	6

Note. This is a proposed program.

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The Counseling Laboratory
A Training, Service, and Research Model

Marita Danek
Fran White

The training of effective school and rehabilitation counselors depends upon the careful and systematic integration of classroom learning with the opportunity to practice and master newly acquired counseling skills and strategies.

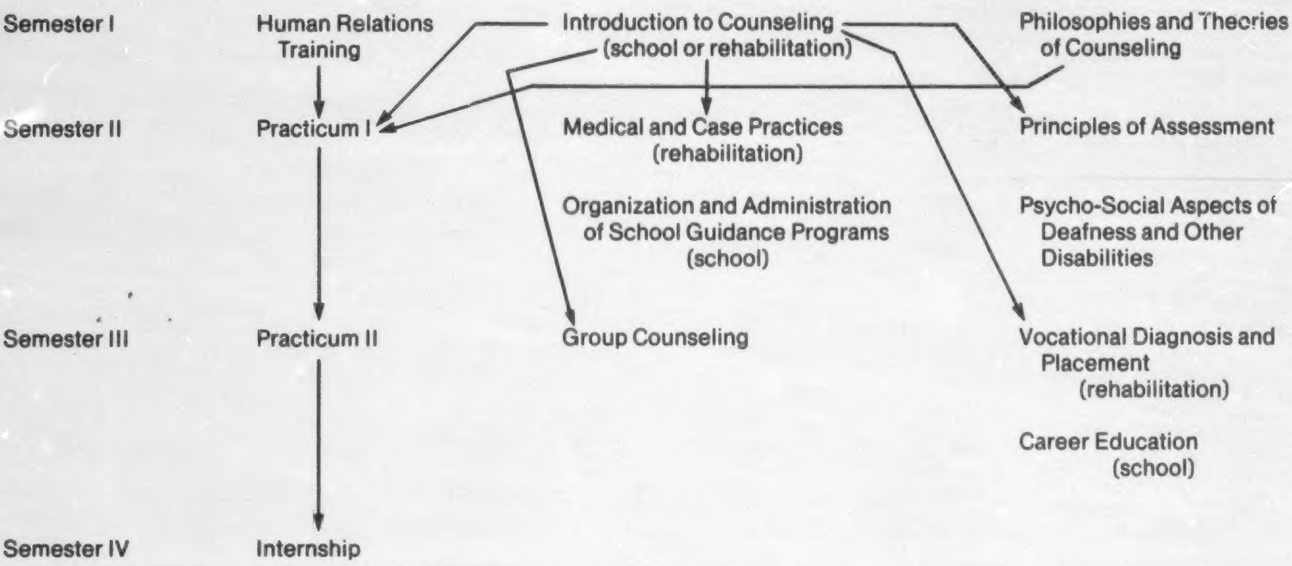
The Department of Counseling at Gallaudet College has, since its inception, stressed the importance of early fieldwork experiences for its graduate students in deafness rehabilitation and school counseling. These fieldwork experiences occupy a central role in the counselor-training curriculum by preparing the student, under close supervision, to function independently in a school or agency setting. By utilizing a variety of fieldwork sites over three semesters, the transition from the student to the professional role is gradually and effectively accomplished. The sequence of training in Gallaudet's Counseling Department is illustrated in Table 1.

As noted in Table 1, the experiential sequence of training moves from Human Relations Training (HRT) directly into Practicum I. HRT focuses on skill building in counseling techniques and strategies through structured classroom role-playing exercises and videotaping. In Practicum I, the student moves into a counseling role with deaf clients in a school or rehabilitation setting in the community. Although community settings provide invaluable experiences in understanding service-delivery systems, they sometimes afford limited opportunity for client contact, particularly throughout all stages of the counseling relationship. Because of the realities of a community work setting, they also sometimes do not provide sufficient time for supervision of counseling sessions.

Rationale for a Lab

Curriculum review workshops within the Department of Counseling had identified the need to provide another level of experiential training between the HRT course and the practicum experience in school and agency settings. This training would not replace a community placement but would rather supplement it by focusing on additional counseling-skill development under close faculty supervision. A counseling laboratory

Table 1
Counselor-Training Curriculum at Gallaudet College
(Core Courses)



	Experiential Sequence		Theoretical Sequence
Semester I	Human Relations Training	Introduction to Counseling (school or rehabilitation)	Philosophies and Theories of Counseling
Semester II	Practicum I	Medical and Case Practices (rehabilitation) Organization and Administration of School Guidance Programs (school)	Principles of Assessment Psycho-Social Aspects of Deafness and Other Disabilities
Semester III	Practicum II	Group Counseling	Vocational Diagnosis and Placement (rehabilitation) Career Education (school)
Semester IV	Internship		

Note. ↓ indicates course prerequisites.

housed within the department most closely met this identified need for additional practice in counseling skills.

The counseling laboratory model has been implemented in some counselor-education programs and described in the literature (Yager, Hector, Scherman, & Winborn, 1974). Such models emphasize growth in counseling skills, strategies, and techniques by working with a wide variety of clients, under close supervision (by faculty and peers) in the college setting. The focus is primarily on the *training* needs of future counselors and secondarily on the *service* needs of the deaf community or the *research* needs of faculty, staff, and students. A college-based counseling lab, therefore, differs in philosophy and function from a community-based system (school or rehabilitation) whose primary mission is to provide counseling services to the target population.

Development of the Counseling Lab

The development and implementation of a new dimension within an existing curriculum involves considerable planning, time, effort, and expenditure of resources. The following developmental activities preceded the actual implementation of the lab.

1. Development of a concept paper providing a philosophical and pragmatic base from which to proceed.
2. Needs assessment of the counseling services required by the deaf community.
3. Review of other college counseling services.
4. Identification of community resources and linkages for case finding and referral.
5. Location and renovation of an appropriate physical facility.
6. Location of appropriate funding sources—internal and external.
7. Development of staffing and management responsibilities.

These activities are described briefly in the following paragraphs.

Concept Paper

The initial step in formulating the lab was to develop a concept paper that described the rationale, goals, and objectives of a lab and outlined the steps necessary to implement this concept over a three-year period. This paper served to familiarize faculty with the lab concept and was helpful in securing departmental and college support for investigating the feasibility of proceeding with proposed plans.

The following semester, three graduate students in school and rehabilitation counseling were assigned to participate in developmental lab activities as their Practicum I placement. Under faculty supervision, they planned individual and group objectives and activities that would prepare them for serving clients.

Needs Assessment

It was necessary to identify the needs of the deaf community relative to preventive, developmental, and remedial counseling. It was also necessary to identify existing services and the target population for proposed services of the Counseling Lab. Interviews of representative professional and consumer groups disclosed an unmet need for counseling services, particularly among multihandicapped deaf residents of the immediate area and their families. Major needs of this group included independent-living skills counseling, family counseling, and personal adjustment counseling.

Review of Other Counseling Lab Models

The students identified several college lab programs and visited those in proximity to Gallaudet. In addition to making us aware of ideas that worked for other colleges, these contacts established a network for future referrals.

Community Resource Networking

The students developed a list of potential resources for case finding. The list included hospitals, courts and the judicial system, jails, residential institutions, social service agencies, schools, and vocational rehabilitation agencies.

Physical Facility Location

The lab was placed in Fowler Hall, the same building that houses the department's faculty offices. An outside door to the lab, however, allows for confidentiality; clients need not walk past faculty offices and classrooms. The facility was renovated to provide two private counseling rooms (one large enough for groups) divided by an observation room equipped with a videotape camera and monitor. Public areas include a waiting area, student offices, and a large open room for meetings and community education activities. The lab is equipped with a Superphone and printer for direct telephone contact with deaf clients.

Funding

The Gallaudet students identified appropriate sources of funding and then wrote a proposal in cooperation with the National Health Care Foundation for the Deaf, a community agency, and the College for Continuing Education of Gallaudet College to provide comprehensive independent-living services for multihandicapped residents of the District of Columbia. The proposal was funded and the program, known as Deaf-REACH, now provides case management, information and referral, independent-living skills training, and counseling to multihandicapped deaf adults and their families.

"Feedback is immediate, specific, and supportive, thus reinforcing emerging counseling skills."

Staffing and Management

The students evaluated the alternatives and determined the standard operating procedures. These procedures included fee structure (ultimately rejected as difficult to administer and a disincentive for clients), referral and intake procedures, eligibility criteria, forms, record keeping, and insurance requirements.

Implementation of the Lab

After one semester of developmental activities, students were assigned to the lab. They began working with deaf clients in a variety of counseling activities.

The present program requires school and rehabilitation counseling graduate students to be assigned to the lab to fulfill the practicum requirements of 200 hours per semester. The students become involved in the following activities.

Counseling

Each student sees clients in the lab and, in some cases, in the community (e.g., two clients are in jail). The clients sign a written consent form prior to the first counseling session. All counseling sessions are videotaped and observed by faculty and peers. Although the students sometimes express a degree of discomfort with videotaping (and sometimes project their own fears onto the client) no clients have thus far refused to be videotaped. Indeed some have asked to see their tapes, a procedure which appears to be a valuable counseling tool.

Community Education/Consultation

Students are assigned specific counties within the area surrounding Gallaudet College. They contact community agencies to determine the inservice training needs of professionals who might encounter deaf clients. Workshops are planned to familiarize professionals with deafness and the deaf community. Future plans include providing workshops for the deaf community on such topics as single parenting, anxiety and stress management, career decision making, etc.

Instructional Activities

Students plan and participate in a variety of activities, including:

1. Special presentations from staff attorneys at the National Center for Law and the Deaf;
2. A workshop in grant writing provided by a faculty member of Gallaudet's Research Institute;
3. Field visits to St. Elizabeths Hospital Mental Health Program for the Deaf (where they observe a client conference held by a staff psychiatrist), the Laurel Mental Health Center for the Deaf, and Otis House (a facility that provides transitional and/or permanent residential services for emotionally restored deaf individuals).

Additionally, students conduct research on a variety of counseling-related topics, such as crisis intervention, suicide, rape, alcoholism, and multicultural issues. The students present the results of the efforts at weekly staff meetings. Their findings will be used to develop a resource file of information and materials.

Staffings/Peer Supervision

Students participate weekly in seminars during which specific counseling approaches used with clients are discussed. Staffings are also held with Deaf-REACH staff (case manager and independent-living skills instructor) to coordinate services for Deaf-REACH clients. Because peer supervision is a valuable adjunct to faculty supervision (Wagner & Smith, 1979), students are encouraged to observe each other in counseling sessions and to provide feedback to the counseling student. The use of videotapes assists the student in self-critiquing, which is an important skill for the independent professional.

Strengths and Weaknesses of the Counseling Lab

There are many advantages to providing an inhouse practicum experience to students and faculty as well as to the client population served in the community.

Benefits to Students

Students benefit from the increased amount of interaction with clients in a laboratory setting. This permits further refinement of individual theoretical approaches, specific skill development, and additional opportunities to integrate the theoretical and experiential elements of counseling. Strong students can progress more rapidly while others can benefit from additional faculty time to remediate deficiencies.

Students obtain feedback from two faculty members as well as from their peers, thus benefiting from multiple perspectives on two points: (a) whether their intended counseling objectives were met, and (b) whether they used their skills and techniques efficiently to meet these objectives. Feedback is immediate, specific, and supportive, thus reinforcing emerging counseling skills. Each student is encouraged to evaluate his or her own performance through both process-recall techniques and direct observation of the videotape. This process is designed to provide guidance for future counseling sessions and, most importantly, to move the student to

"A cohesiveness develops among the students. . . ."

the point where the monitoring of personal competencies will supplant external assistance. Independent functioning and self-supervision is, of course, the goal of any counselor-training program (Bernstein & Lecomte, 1979; Littrell, Lee-Borden, & Lorenz, 1979; Wagner & Smith, 1979).

In community placements, students have the opportunity to *observe* the system and participate in some of its goals. In the lab, the students *are* the system. They have the power to make decisions, influence policy, and participate in every level of operation from record keeping to community relations to client contact. Each new group of students builds upon the contributions of the former group.

The openness of supervision leads to a marked reduction of defensiveness in counseling supervision among the students. Use of the videotape, although frightening at first, would appear to support the contention that this is a very effective means of supervision (Robinson, Froehle, & Kurpius, 1979). A cohesiveness develops among the students that provides the necessary encouragement and support for risk taking and personal initiative in the lab's projects.

Benefits to the Community

Clients are served through Deaf-REACH who might never otherwise obtain counseling and independent-living skills training.

Program Weaknesses

Disadvantages of the laboratory are mainly logistical but, nonetheless, should be seriously considered by faculty investigating the feasibility of a similar venture. Briefly, these fall under the categories of time and money.

Time. It is easy to underestimate the amount of time required of faculty involved in such an endeavor. The lab is open two days a week and requires almost full-time participation by faculty during these hours, particularly when new practicum students need closer supervision. Almost 20 clients are seen weekly in the lab; the supervision requirements, coupled with other faculty duties, can become formidable. One remedy is to hire a manager (possibly a doctoral student) to assist in supervision and daily management activities.

Money. As with any agency, continuous support for activities is an ongoing concern. The lab presently functions with volunteers; students and faculty are not compensated for their involvement. Physical space and some equipment have been provided by Gallaudet College, although costs for videotapes, supplies, and secretarial assistance are ongoing and remain a problem.

Future plans for the lab include finding a permanent funding source, involving other campus units and departments in our training and research activities, and developing research projects in counseling strategies and techniques most appropriate to various deaf populations.

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Toward Greater Effectiveness in Deaf Education

An Applied Science View

Mynga K. Futrell

Being *effective* implies producing desired results, or getting the job done. In the educational context, effectiveness denotes actual accomplishment of declared educational aims. It is the intent of this article to offer to teachers and researchers a conceptual schema for examining the effectiveness concept within their own endeavors. The article also encourages the application of a scientific approach to program design in order to promote the accomplishment of declared goals in deaf education.

Effectiveness as an Issue in Deaf Education

Although educators of the deaf have, up until now, been working in an area of education relatively free from outside concerns about effectiveness, they are far from complacent concerning the job they are doing. In spite of best efforts to educate deaf individuals toward their potentials, there is broad awareness in the field that the desired results are seldom totally achieved. In fact, if one considers that being effective in educating the deaf means actually accomplishing the stated educational aims, then one must face the fact that there is a significant discrepancy between the declared goals and the production record. It is a discrepancy of which educators of the deaf are keenly aware.

In their overview of education of hearing-impaired learners, Ferguson, Hicks, and Pfau (1982) identified commonality of educational goals as one point of agreement in the field of deaf education, a field otherwise characterized by great diversity of opinion and sometimes controversial views. Ferguson, Hicks, and Pfau feel safe in saying that all educators of the hearing impaired want their students, upon commencement from school, to have a level of operation comparable to their hearing peers. However, they point out that school achievement data on hearing-impaired young people are alarmingly low when compared with those on nonexceptional children and youth.

If the job of achieving declared educational aims for deaf students is not being accomplished, it is not attributable to any lack of dedication on the part of those who teach and work with them. Considerable progress in the areas of research and educational program development has been made in recent years. In addition, researchers and teachers of the deaf have endeavored to implement the recommendations of the Advisory Committee Report to the Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare (Babbidge, 1965) for an aggressive assault on some of the basic learning problems of the deaf, especially those of language learning. It may now be time to consider a shift in the focus of this research and development assault. With the continuing discrepancy between desired goals and actual outcomes in spite of progress in researching specific problem areas, the concept of applying scientific processes toward systematically boosting the effectiveness of the endeavor to educate deaf children and prepare them for full participation in society is one deserving of consideration.

Deaf Education As a System

The effectiveness problem in deaf education, although familiar to almost everyone with interest or activity in the field, is broad in scope and complex in nature. As a result, it does not lend itself easily to either analysis or to problem-solving strategies. However, one perspective from which the effectiveness problem can be viewed is that which looks upon the enterprise of deaf education as a system with a purpose.

Filbeck (1974) describes a system as any part of the world divisible into separate parts or phases, with the entire assemblage of parts or phases functioning (more or less) in synchrony. To make the meaning more precise, Filbeck adds an additional idea to his definition of the system concept, noting that the functional relationship among various interrelated components in the entire assemblage (system) exists for some purpose. Wong and Raulerson (1974) concur; they define a system as "a set of parts united by some form of interaction for the attainment of a specific purpose" (p. 9). They also identify the facilitation of learning as the raison d'etre of any educational system.

The system concept is introduced here, not as a means of conjuring up mechanistic pictures or associated fears of a dehumanized perspective on the endeavor to educate deaf students, but rather because the subject at hand—deaf education—is such a complex relational enterprise. Therefore, the concept should be perceived simply as a tool for examining complex organizational structures, similar to the psychologist's gestalt, the geographer's region, or the anthropologist's culture.

Using the system concept is of real benefit to anyone attempting to apply scientific processes to the investigation or management of complex organizational structures. The concept is widely used, for example, as a mental tool by the ecologist or environmentalist who is concerned with the behaviors and modes of life of living organisms and with the relations of these organisms to their surroundings. The system concept is of equal value to anyone who is attempting, likewise, to apply scientific approaches to education. It assists in representing and analyzing that really complex entity which is of actual concern—the milieu of people, places, processes, and things that are involved in the educational endeavor.

An applied scientist, interested in the application of scientific approaches in deaf education, would be prone to use the system concept, viewing the endeavor to educate deaf students toward full participation in society as a system. In order to examine the performance problem of this deaf education system and to consider a scientific attempt to reduce it, a short review of the system perspective is in order.

Measuring the Effectiveness of a System

To measure a system's effectiveness in accomplishing its purpose, one need not know what goes on inside the system, only what goes in and what comes out—*inputs* and *outputs*. This principle is exemplified in the following rhyme (a system analyst's anthem).

> A system is a little black box,
> Of which we don't unlock the locks,
> But find out what it's all about,
> By what goes in and what comes out.
> (Romiszowski, 1981, p. 7)

This principle is sometimes called a *black box view* of a system. Whatever the actual parts inside, or their organization or interactions, the black box view focuses upon the extent to which the components and processes function *appropriately*.

When a system with stated desired outputs (goals) is viewed via a black box perspective, the comparison of its *desired* outputs and its *measured* outputs is the measure of the system's effectiveness, without regard to the nature of the processes occurring within the black box. The effective system becomes the black box that produces what it is supposed to produce. In other words, from this applied science perspective, *an effective system is one that produces the desired output from the given input*. A system is ineffective, of course, to the degree that the black box fails to produce what it should.

Effectiveness and System Design

The existence of a malfunctioning system (one that is not effective in achieving its purpose) suggests the possibility of design problems inside the black box. To the applied scientist, appropriate arrangement of components and processes (which is a manipulable variable) is a requirement for both effectiveness and efficiency in system operation. If the output of the system is not satisfactory, then better design is indicated. In deaf education, the task of boosting system effectiveness involves making alterations in the components and processes that make up deaf education so that they are better able to contribute to achievement of the system's purpose than currently is the case.

In an applied science view, it is important to focus attention on those components and processes which *can* be modified to further the attainment of the system's purpose. What is it that can be modified to improve the performance of deaf education? There can be no manipulation of the input to the system. To the applied scientist, input is a given, a fixed variable. Deaf education is in the business of meeting its goals with deaf students. One cannot change that variable. Any agreed-upon goals of deaf education are also seen as a *known* (fixed variable). If the actual outcomes (responding variables) are to be improved, the system engineer must look to the black box itself (the manipulable variable). Whether for purposes of attributing blame for poor outcomes in deaf education or, more importantly, for improving the situation, it is the design of deaf education that is suspect when its performance is not satisfactory.

What is deaf education's basic design and from what did it derive? These questions are worthy of consideration because, as the single manipulable variable in the equation, it is the design that can be manipulated in the hopes of making significant improvement in system performance.

When an applied scientist opens up the lid of the deaf education system's black box for a look inside, he or she seeks to identify both the essential interacting components of the system and its processes. What can be seen in a quick glance at the system?

In general, a cursory look at deaf education's major components will reveal such large basic parts as the elementary, middle, and high school clusters, with students labeled by their location on a time-spent continuum (grade level). There will also be the major structural organization of curriculum into chunks such as reading, language arts, and arithmetic in the early grades, and subject areas such as biology, American history, and English in the upper grades. In most cases the students will be clustered in groups, with one teacher placed in each group (class).

Examination of the process aspect of the system will reveal (a) the system actively operating during nine-month periods, with rest periods during the summer season; (b) students assembling for work at 9 and departing at 3; (c) younger students spending most of their time with one teacher; and (d) older students entering and leaving classrooms according to fixed schedules.

"In order to design a new system of deaf education, exacting standards must be applied to the design of the instructional program. . . ."

One could go on at length, but the concept is this: the components and processes that define deaf education are observable, have been described by researchers at several levels of detail, and are doubtless familiar to almost every reader of this article. What one sees when lifting the lid off the black box of the system of deaf education is its striking similarity to the basic source of its design—regular education. From administrative teams to classroom units to school facilities to curriculum to teaching methods, deaf education is really, with only minor adjustments, an emulation of the traditional pattern of regular education. What differences do exist are really more like tiny smudges on a photocopy—they are insignificant given the overall accuracy of the duplication feat!

The overwhelming similarity of the system of education provided the deaf student to the system provided the hearing student would be of no concern *if the system worked.* The point is, it doesn't, at least not to a desirable degree. It should make sense, then, from an applied science view, that some sort of redesign within deaf education is necessitated. The challenge is to identify what sort of design would best achieve the stated goals of deaf education.

The Effective System: A Matter of Appropriate Design

It should be possible to design more appropriate components and processes that will interact more effectively and efficiently to further the system purpose (achieving educational goals with deaf students) than does the existing design. The way to do this is by taking a *systematic* and *scientific* approach.

In order to design a new system of deaf education, exacting standards must be applied to the design of the instructional program, much the same as they are to the design of research. It is widely understood that, if one is to gain appropriate understanding of phenomena, one must carefully structure the investigation and account for all variables. Appropriate research design is a requisite to accuracy of knowledge. A rigorous design process also is required if one is to assure the production of an effective system. This approach to design is usually a time-consuming process, but the results, like those obtained in much research, are similarly worth the effort.

In practice, the systematic approach, sometimes called system approach, can be thought of as organized common sense. It takes all important factors into consideration, so as to organize all subsystems (components and processes) to function in accord with each other to effectively contribute to the overall purpose of the system. Many educational professionals regard the system approach as a new science because it involves using scientific approaches in the development of learning programs for students. After all, in applied science perspective, the black box is clearly manipulable, and the question is simply this: With these particular inputs and other givens (resources and constraints), what system (arrangement of components and processes) will produce the response desired? (That question is just as natural to the system engineer as is the more familiar question of the research scientist: What will be the effect on the responding variable of a change in the manipulated variable, all other variables being controlled?)

Education has been a human activity for millennia, but the concept of careful design and a scientific approach to planning learning is relatively recent. In fact, the very idea of approaching teaching scientifically is anathema to many educators, and for understandable reasons—it just hasn't been done that way. Reif (1978) has given the following argument in support of the idea of changing that situation and approaching the educational endeavor as applied science.

> Education has been mostly approached as a practical concern for teaching, as an art or craft, as common-sense wisdom or philosophical argumentation, or as the collection of miscellaneous data. Some of these activities are, in fact, useful. But they do *not* constitute a science, any more than the growing of crops constitutes any science of agriculture, or than the clinical practice of doctors treating patients constitutes the science of medicine. (p. 2)

In Reif's view, major improvements in education can come about only if education is deliberately approached as applied science, even though it is, by most standards, primitive and lacking in the knowledge base of reliable facts and predictive theories, powerful methods and technologies, etc., that characterize any successful applied science. He argues that substantial educational progress cannot be made without the adoption in education of some of the general characteristics present, and taken for granted, in all well-established sciences. According to Reif, the most critical requirement is that an explicit systematic approach to education be pursued. He bolsters his argument for the likelihood of payoff in effectiveness by pointing to the remarkable advances in agriculture after Mendel asked some systematic questions about the inheritance of plant characteristics (questions which could have, but hadn't, been addressed much earlier) and initiated some controlled studies. Reif envisions the probability of substantial progress in education if educators give serious critical attention to those variables identified as important, and invest the energy and resources necessary for their careful operational definition and systematic manipulation.

If deaf education were to be designed from scratch on the basis of what fundamental knowledge is now available, it is certain that the insides of the new black box would be strikingly different from the relative carbon copy of regular education that it is today. The new model would be established with the known characteristics and needs of deaf children in mind. Deaf children would be the input and the design would be totally focused toward defining and arranging those components and processes that would interact most appropriately to help them reach educational goals before adulthood. The deaf students in such a system would be the *regular* students, not the exceptions for whom adjustments are made.

If assigned the task of designing a system of education from scratch, with the stated goals of education as givens and with a specified length of time set within which the system would be able to achieve these goals (for example, the typical 12-year time span that society gives to education to accomplish its job of preparing students for life), a system engineer would of necessity be required to give extensive attention to that other given in the design project—the input (deaf students). The typical deaf students who enter into the system of deaf education differ significantly from their hearing counterparts on such key variables as their visual dependence for communication and information input, their experiential base for conceptual and linguistic development, and their levels of linguistic competence. Any education system designed to (a) address the particular characteristics and needs of such students and (b) provide them with appropriate experiences to accelerate their progress toward the level of achievement stated as goals of deaf education would be a far different system from the one they currently encounter on the day they enter an educational program. Perhaps it is just such a system that educators of the deaf should begin striving to design.

"If deaf education were to be designed from scratch. . . .[it] would be strikingly different from the relative carbon copy of regular education that it is today."

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An Investigation of the Criterion-Related Validity of the SAT-HI Reading Comprehension Subtest for Deaf Students

Carol LaSasso
Beth Davey

Criterion-related validity refers to the extent to which a measure of a particular construct (e.g., reading comprehension) relates to other measures of the same construct. Criterion-related validity is an important consideration when one is selecting a measure to predict performance on separate measures of the same mental trait. The SAT-HI (Stanford Achievement Test-Hearing Impaired version) is the reading achievement test used most with deaf students; it is used widely to make educational decisions regarding the placement of deaf students in educational programs (LaSasso, 1978). One assumption, yet to be verified, that underlies the use of the SAT-HI to make such educational decisions is that the SAT-HI is a valid predictor of deaf students' performance on other measures of reading comprehension. In light of recent research findings that suggest a differential influence of certain ancillary *task* variables (separate from *reader* or *text* variables) on deaf students' demonstration of comprehension (Davey, LaSasso, & Macready, in press, 1982; LaSasso, 1980; McKee & Lang, 1982; Wood, Griffiths, & Webster, 1981), the assumption that the SAT-HI is a valid predictor of performance on separate reading comprehension measures should be examined.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the criterion-related validity of the SAT-HI Reading Comprehension subtest for deaf students by correlating SAT-HI scores with scores on the following types of comprehension tasks commonly used with deaf students: multiple-choice (administered under both lookback and no-lookback conditions, free-response (administered under both lookback and no-lookback conditions), cloze, and modified-cloze tasks. To determine the effect of ancillary task conditions known to influence deaf students' performance on comprehension measures (Davey et al., in press), correlations were also obtained between SAT-HI scores and scores on question tasks collapsed according to (a) lookback condition (lookback, no-lookback), (b) information type (i.e., literal, inferential), and (c) response type (i.e., multiple-choice, free-response).

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects for this study consisted of 50 prelingually, profoundly deaf students who attended a large residential school for the deaf. They ranged in age from 10 to 18 years (mean age = 15.98 years). Subjects scored between 5.0 and 7.9 on the Intermediate I, Form B, Reading Comprehension subtest of the SAT-HI (1973 hearing norms). The mean raw score was 45.5. All subjects met the following three criteria.

1. They had become deaf prior to the age of two years.
2. They had a hearing loss greater than 85 db (ISO) for the speech frequencies of 500, 1000, and 2000 Hz.
3. They had no additional handicapping conditions.

Passages

Eighteen passages, judged to be comparable in terms of length, style, readability, and degree of familiarity, were selected from *Standard Test Lessons in Reading* (McCall & Crabbs, 1961). Passages were expository and were between 200 and 250 words in length. A panel of judges, consisting of teachers of hearing and deaf students, evaluated the passages in terms of probable familiarity of content to deaf readers. Each passage retained for the final study received a low familiarity rating by at least three of the four judges. Difficulty of each passage was computed to be 5th grade by the Fry (1968) and Dale-Chall (1948) readability formulas, which have been determined to be the readability formulas used most with deaf students (LaSasso, 1978).

Comprehension Tasks

Four comprehension tasks were constructed for each of the 18 passages. The two tasks involving questions (i.e., multiple-choice and free-response) were administered under both lookback and no-lookback conditions.

Multiple-Choice Tasks. An 8-item, multiple-choice task was constructed for each of the 18 passages. Four items assessed comprehension of literal (text-explicit) information and four items assessed comprehension of inferential (text-implicit) information. A literal question was defined as one that assessed information directly stated in the language of the text. An inferential question was defined as one that assessed comprehension of information not directly stated in the language of the text, but which could be derived or inferred from directly stated information. To answer these questions, the reader needed to go beyond the language of the text (Pearson & Johnson, 1978). The appropriateness of item classification was established by having a panel of reading specialists examine each question. Each item retained for the final study met the criterion of having been identified as literal or inferential by at least three of the four judges.

Question stems were cast as WH-questions since an earlier study (LaSasso, 1979) had determined that deaf students are better able to demonstrate comprehension with WH-questions than with incomplete statement stems. Question stems of literal questions were typically paraphrased by doing one or more of the following: (a) altering some of the lexical items in such a way that little or no meaning change occurred, (b) adding or deleting words that did not substantially alter the meaning of the text, or (c) altering the arrangement of words in the text so that little or no meaning change occurred. Care was taken to make question stems as syntactically simple as possible.

A series of pilot studies established passage dependency of items and item difficulty. Passage dependency of items refers to the degree an item can be answered by a subject without reading the passage, (e.g., by using prior knowledge, test-wiseness, etc.). To determine passage dependency, 40 hearing students, reading between a 7th- and 9th-grade reading level, according to the SRA Achievement Test, were given the sets of multiple-choice questions without their corresponding passages and were instructed to answer the questions as best they could. The passage dependency of each item was established by using Pyrczak's (1975) formula $I = P_e - P_m$. In the formula, P_e equals the proportion of students expected to answer a particular question on the basis of chance alone, and P_m equals the proportion of students who actually mark the correct answer for a particular item. Items with low-passage dependency indices were either rewritten or discarded. All items retained for the final study were judged to be satisfactorily passage dependent.

Item difficulty for each of the multiple-choice questions was established in a pilot study with 120 4th- to 6th-grade hearing students. Under a no-lookback condition, students read each of the passages and answered the questions. Items retained for the final study ranged in difficulty from .40 to .90, with an average difficulty of .60.

Free-Response Task. An 8-item, free-response task was constructed for each of the 18 passages. The four literal and four inferential questions were the same as those constructed for the corresponding multiple-choice tasks. The wording of the questions was identical to the wording of the multiple-choice question stems and the question ordering was the same. Two raters, one an experienced teacher of deaf students, the other an experienced teacher of hearing students, scored all responses. Interrater reliability was determined to be greater than .90.

Cloze Task. A 17-item cloze test was constructed for each of the passages in the study. Tests were constructed in accordance with procedures outlined by Bormuth (1975) as being standard procedures for test construction. Passages were typed in such a way that every 5th word was deleted and replaced by a 15-space line. Deletions began with a randomly selected word in the second sentence. Tests were scored using an exact-word replacement scoring procedure. A subject's score was the number of correct responses supplied. Minor misspellings were scored as correct as long as the response was otherwise correct. Omissions of plural or tense endings resulted in a response being scored as incorrect.

Modified-Cloze Task. A 17-item recognition (multiple-choice) cloze task was constructed for each of the 18 passages. Items deleted were identical to those on corresponding cloze tasks; however, four alternatives were constructed for each deletion. One alternative made sense within the sentence but not within the passage. A second made sense with preceding context but not with subsequent context. A third was neither syntactically nor semantically appropriate. The fourth alternative was the word used in the passage. Care was taken to be sure that foils for each item were used either as frequently as or more frequently than the correct word. Word frequency was determined by the *Teachers Word Book* (Thorndike, 1927). The placement of each alternative was randomly determined. Subjects were instructed to circle the one word for each deletion they believed the author used.

Collection of Data

Passages with accompanying tasks were grouped into triads in order to have a sufficient number of items for adequate reliabilities (i.e., 24 items for question tasks and 50 items for cloze and modified-cloze tasks). Triads remained constant for the different task conditions. Decisions about which passages to group together were based on data obtained in a pilot study of multiple-choice item difficulty. Passages were grouped in such a way that overall difficulty for items in each triad was comparable.

The subjects took the tests in a group setting within their school, in four testing sessions over four consecutive days. Group administration and other practical constraints necessitated administering the tests in a predetermined sequence. All subjects eventually read all passage triads, each triad under a different task condition. Triads were assigned to subjects in such a way that equal numbers of passages were read under each task condition. For the first testing session, assignment of triads was randomly determined. Subsequent assignment of triads was counterbalanced so that no triad was used for more than one task condition for any individual subject.

"These data tend to suggest that the SAT-HI is an adequate and consistent across-task predictor of deaf students' performance on other types of comprehensive measures."

During the first testing session, subjects took the multiple-choice (lookback) test. During the second session, subjects took the free-response (lookback) and modified-cloze tasks. During the third session, they took the cloze task, and during the fourth session, they took the free-response (no-lookback) and multiple-choice (no-lookback) tasks. Subjects were given 15 minutes for each of the tasks except the cloze, for which they were given 30 minutes. These limits permitted all subjects to complete each task.

Results

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were computed between subjects' performance on the SAT-HI and each of the other comprehension measures (see Table 1). Correlation coefficients were also computed between subjects' SAT-HI performance and performance on question tasks collapsed according to (a) lookback condition (i.e., lookback, no-lookback); (b) information type (i.e., literal, inferential); and (c) response type (i.e., multiple-choice, free-response). These coefficients are found in Table 2.

Table 1
Correlations between SAT-HI and Selected Reading Comprehension Tasks for Deaf Students

$N = 50$

Comprehension Task	Correlation with SAT-HI
Cloze	.57
Modified Cloze	.64
Multiple-Choice (Lookback)	.57
Multiple-Choice (No-Lookback)	.56
Free-Response (Lookback)	.61
Free-Response (No-Lookback)	.67

$p < .01$

Results of *t*-test analyses (McNemar, 1969) revealed no significant differences either between correlations of SAT-HI and other reading comprehension tasks or between SAT-HI and question tasks collapsed according to ancillary task conditions.

Discussion

Deaf subjects' SAT-HI performance and their performance on each of the six more specific measures of comprehension yielded moderately high, positive correlations. Between 32% and 45% of the variance on each of the more specific measures of comprehension could be explained from SAT-HI performance. Even higher correlations would have been obtained had they been corrected for attenuation. Within the limitations of this study, these data tend to suggest that the SAT-HI is an adequate and consistent across-task predictor of deaf students' performance on other types of comprehensive measures.

Moderately high, positive correlations were also obtained between deaf subjects' SAT-HI performance and performance on question tasks collapsed according to ancillary task conditions which have been shown to differentially influence deaf students' performance (Davey et al., in press). Between 43% and 53% of the variance on each of the task groupings could be explained from SAT-HI performance. Interestingly, correlation coefficients did not significantly differ for (a) questions assessing either literal or inferential information, (b) question tasks administered under lookback versus no-lookback conditions, or (c) multiple-choice versus free-response questions. It would appear that although deaf students' mean levels of performance vary as a function of the type of comprehension measure (Davey et al., in press), the SAT-HI comparably predicts performance on each of these measures.

Table 2
Correlation Coefficients between SAT-HI and Question Tasks Collapsed According to Lookback Condition, Information Type, and Response Type

Question Tasks	Correlation Coefficients
Lookback Condition	
Lookback	.70
No-Lookback	.68
Information Type	
Literal	.66
Inferential	.69
Response Type	
Multiple-Choice	.66
Free-Response	.69

$p < .001$

More research is needed with other levels of the SAT-HI, different age groups, and larger samples of deaf students to enhance the generalizability of these findings. Furthermore, the SAT-HI has not been shown to be a perfect predictor of students' performance. Accordingly, practitioners are cautioned, at this point, to regard instructional decisions such as decisions pertaining to deaf students' placement in educational programs, which are based solely on students' SAT-HI performance, as tentative and capable of revision.

When the SAT-HI is used with these limitations in mind, however, the preliminary data reported here suggest that the SAT-HI can be useful in making instructional decisions for deaf students.

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Q-Sort Methodology – A Technique for Identifying Competencies Needed by Teachers of the Hearing Impaired

Marilyn Sass

Teacher-preparation programs continually struggle with the question of how best to prepare teachers of hearing-impaired students. One way to assure that the curricula of teacher-preparation programs are responsive to the needs of teachers in the field is to ask them what competencies they perceive to be the most critical to their jobs. A study was designed and conducted during the spring of 1982 in order to obtain this information; its substantive findings are reported elsewhere (Sass, Note 1).

Data for this study were gathered by employing a little utilized data-gathering technique known as Q-sort methodology. The remainder of this article will (a) briefly describe this study, (b) explain Q-sort methodology, and (c) illustrate its use as a group-inquiry procedure.

Background Information

One of the major changes in the education of hearing-impaired students in the last 20 years is the increasing number of programs available for them in the public schools. Today, approximately 50% of all hearing-impaired pupils are being educated in regular public schools (Craig & Craig, 1982).

Among the increased number of hearing-impaired students attending public schools, a large number (according to Craig & Craig; Wolk, Karchmer, & Schildroth, 1982) attend classes with normally hearing students on a part- or full-time basis. Self-contained classes in which hearing-impaired pupils receive all instruction and have limited contact with hearing pupils are being replaced by a variety of mainstream models. Many teachers are not prepared for this change and its additional responsibilities.

Until recently, all teachers of hearing-impaired students were prepared to teach self-contained classes in residential or special day schools. Teachers were expected to work primarily with profoundly deaf students who had no additional handicapping conditions and to teach those students from kindergarten through high school. Few teacher-preparation programs have responded to the changes that have occurred with the movement of deaf children from special day and residential facilities to the regular public schools.

Overview of the Study

Do the specific training needs of teachers in one school setting differ from those in another setting? Should teacher-training programs continue to provide a generic program that prepares teachers to work in any setting? These questions led to the development and reporting of the study (Sass, Note 1) that was designed to answer the question: Do teachers of elementary-level hearing-impaired students in different settings have different perceptions regarding the competencies most critical to the effective performance of their jobs?

The target populations for collecting data on teacher competencies were teachers of elementary-level hearing-impaired students (a) in self-contained classes in residential schools and (b) in integrated classes in public schools. Teachers working in integrated settings were defined as those who had at least one student who attended academic classes with normally hearing students. Teachers who had classes identified as multihandicapped hearing impaired were excluded from the study. A total of 134 teachers from 6 residential and 10 regular public school programs participated in the study.

A Q-sort instrument was constructed to identify and compare the competencies which teachers in the two distinct educational settings perceived as most critical. This instrument was composed of 45 competency statements which subjects were asked to sort along a 7-point, bipolar continuum ranging from very least to very most critical.

Questionnaires requesting demographic data and Q-sort instruments were delivered in person by the investigator to the program supervisors in each of the participating programs. The supervisors were asked to give the materials to the appropriate teachers in their programs and collect them within two weeks.

Selection of Q-Sort Methodology

A variety of methodologies and data-gathering strategies were investigated to determine the most effective means of identifying the competencies teachers perceive as most critical to their jobs. The methodology selected had to be sensitive enough to discern real differences in teachers' perceptions. A high rate of return was essential in order to lend support to the findings.

One of the rating systems considered was a 5-point Likert scale on which teachers indicate how critical a particular competency is to their effective performance. When items having some degree of importance to all respondents are rated in this way, responses are susceptible to the halo effect and spuriously high results are often obtained. In two recent studies of competencies needed by teachers of hearing-impaired students, a 5-point Likert scale was employed. Seventy-five and 85%, respectively, of all statements were rated by the respondents as most or very important (Doctor, 1979; Venn, Serwatka, & Shreve, 1982). Few statistically significant differences between item means were found when rating scales were used to identify competencies needed by teachers of the hearing impaired (Doctor, 1979; Mackie, 1955, 1959; Northcott, 1971). A further disadvantage of this procedure is the low response rate typically obtained. Teachers are frequently asked to respond to questionnaires involving rating scales, and the task is rarely viewed as interesting or enjoyable.

A simple ranking procedure was also considered for this study. While having the advantage of forcing respondents to make relative judgments on the importance of individual items, a ranking procedure is not effective or practical when a large number of items is involved. The finer the discriminations required, the less one can be assured that the ranks for each item are stable. Differences between items are often artificial when respondents are not permitted to assign the same rank value to two or more items. In addition, this procedure requires an unrealistic demand on teacher time.

Q-sort method was identified as the most effective procedure to obtain the information desired. This technique provides an interesting alternative to the rating scale and ranking procedure by requiring the respondents to manipulate a set of cards. It has been used extensively in educational research (Gooding & Wilbur, 1971; Halterman, 1969;Kerlinger, 1973; Monahan, 1979; O'Tuel & Terry, 1978; Sontag, 1968; Stone & Green, 1971). Respondents who have used Q-sorts generally perceive the technique as enjoyable, and researchers find refusals to respond are rare (Cataldo, Johnson, Kellstedt, & Milbrath, 1970; Kerlinger, 1973; Stone & Green, 1971).

With Q-sort, respondents are asked to sort a set of cards, each of which contains a single statement, in piles along a bipolar scale. Using a modified rank order in which respondents are to place a predetermined number of cards in each category, they are encouraged to sort and re-sort the cards so that the final distribution reflects how they perceive each statement relative to the other statements in the sort.

Q-sort method minimizes the tendency of respondents to rate all items as equally important or evaluate items as they perceive they should. By establishing a fixed number of items to be placed at each level of response, the investigator prevents differences in responses arising from some subjects employing less strict criteria while others use more stringent criteria for judging item importance. The forced-choice technique used with Q-sort has been found to be statistically superior to a free-choice procedure in which respondents are able to establish their own rating criteria (Block, 1978).

The Q-sort method permits the investigator to study whether individuals or groups of individuals order items in similar ways. In this study, the sorts of the two groups of teachers were compared to determine the differences in their perceptions of the competencies most critical to their jobs.

Development of the Q-Sort System

In the development of the Q-sort instrument, the number of response levels to be used along the continuum, as well as the number of items to be placed within each level, must be determined. Seven response levels ranging along a bipolar continuum of very most critical to very least critical were selected for this study. The seven levels appeared to provide sufficient discrimination among items without demanding too many fine discriminations or an unrealistic demand of time from the respondents. The response levels were: very most critical, very critical, more critical, moderately critical, less critical, not very critical, and very least critical. The number of competency statements to be placed at each response level was determined by attempting to create a symmetrical distribution which was close to normal in shape.

The 45 competency statements used in this study were categorized in the following manner:

1. Student assessment
2. Organization and management of instruction
3. Instructional competencies
4. Family education and guidance
5. Personal characteristics and traits
6. Professional competencies

Table 1 lists the statements used in this study according to category.

Conclusions and Implications for Using Q-Sort

Of the 167 packets distributed, 134 were returned, reflecting an 80% response rate. Fifty-two of the responses were from teachers in residential school programs, while 82 were from teachers in regular public school programs. This high response rate may have been due to the procedures followed for distributing and collecting the materials or to the Q-sort technique. Many respondents indicated that they found the technique interesting, and only three responses were eliminated because the cards were not sorted properly.

One of the criticisms of using a forced-choice Q-sort method is that procedures must be administered personally (Kerlinger, 1973; Monahan, 1979). However, as evidenced in this study, when directions for the card-sorting procedure are clear, it does not need to be administered in person and can be used for surveying large populations.

Table 1
List of Categories and the Competencies Included in Those Categories

Category	Competency Statement
Student Assessment	Ability to analyze and interpret information from case histories and records of students which include medical, psychological, psychiatric, educational, and audiological reports
	Ability to assess students' speech communication in terms of intelligibility, overall quality, and use
	Ability to identify other handicapping conditions and the impact of these on the academic, communicative, and social functioning of the students
	Ability to assess students' social and emotional functioning
	Ability to assess students' physical and psychomotor abilities
	Ability to assess hearing-impaired students' academic abilities (e.g., reading, math, social studies, etc.)
	Ability to assess students' manual communication, both receptive and expressive
	Ability to evaluate appropriateness of students' placement and nature of educational programming
	Ability to assess students' use of residual hearing
	Ability to assess students' English language competence and performance, both receptively and expressively
Organization and Management of Instruction	Ability to manage teacher aides or volunteers in assisting with instruction and classroom organization
	Ability to develop and/or adapt instructional materials for use with hearing-impaired students
	Ability to coordinate and schedule students' curricular activities and programs
	Ability to use information collected through various assessment procedures to develop an Individualized Educational Plan (IEP)
Instructional Competencies	Ability to teach a group of approximately eight hearing-impaired students
	Ability to teach students nonverbally through pictures, mime, role play, etc.
	Ability to teach multihandicapped hearing-impaired students
	Ability to provide all instruction in language development to hearing-impaired students
	Ability to teach hearing-impaired students on a one to one basis
	Ability to provide supplementary/supportive instruction in academic areas (e.g., reading, math, social studies, etc.)
	Ability to teach small groups of hearing-impaired students
	Ability to teach hard-of-hearing students

Table 1 (continued)

Family Education and Guidance	Ability to guide students in the development of a positive self-concept
	Ability to help parents implement and carry out techniques for behavior management
	Ability to instruct/guide parents in the use and maintenance of amplification
	Ability to motivate and instruct parents in ways to provide supportive instruction or reinforcement of program goals at home
	Ability to aid hearing-impaired students and their family members in understanding and accepting hearing impairments and formulating realistic expectations of their abilities
	Ability to help parents understand their child's educational potential as well as limitations
Personal Characteristics and Traits	Ability to convey self-confidence when dealing with students and adults
	Ability to demonstrate fairness and impartiality when working with students
	Ability to deal with crises calmly and effectively
	Ability to establish good rapport with students and adults
	Ability to empathize with others
	Ability to maintain a sense of humor
	Ability to be enthusiastic and to motivate and encourage others
	Ability to be sensitive and tactful when working with others
	Ability to be open-minded and flexible when working with others
Professional Competencies	Ability to design and organize workshops on hearing impairment for normally hearing students and/or other professionals
	Ability to interact with social workers, psychologists, counselors, and others to discuss educational and social implications of hearing loss
	Knowledge of legal and ethical responsibilities when dealing with confidential information
	Knowledge of social and political trends that affect programs and services for the hearing impaired
	Knowledge of recent developments and trends in the field of hearing impairment
	Knowledge of current legislation that affects programs and services for the hearing impaired
	Ability to develop and maintain good working relations with other professionals in the community (e.g., physicians, hearing aid dealers, social workers, etc.)
	Knowledge of community and national resources and organizations on hearing impairment available for parents and families

> **"Identifying discrepancies between teachers' and administrators' perceptions. . .might stimulate dialogue between the two groups to clarify goals and ideas."**

A preliminary analysis of the data seems to indicate that teachers of the hearing impaired in residential and regular public schools have different perceptions regarding the competencies most critical to their effective performance. The Q-sort method proved to be an effective technique for identifying these relative differences.

A card-sorting strategy can be utilized by teacher-preparation personnel as well as school administrators in a variety of other ways. For example, needs assessments of competencies for teachers could be conducted via this technique and inservice programs could be developed based on the data collected. Teachers and administrators could evaluate the relative importance of various aspects of a teacher-preparation curriculum to provide feedback to the program on which areas should be emphasized. Identifying discrepancies between teachers' and administrators' perceptions of job responsibilities or effectiveness might stimulate dialogue between the two groups to clarify goals and ideas.

Keeping abreast of the state of the art in teacher education of the hearing impaired requires continual assessment of the competencies needed by teachers in the field. A procedure such as Q-sort, which is not demanding of teacher time, yet is capable of ascertaining information of a quantitative nature, is a valuable research technique that merits increased attention.

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The Family Environment and the Self-Esteem of the Deaf Child

Stanley S. Guterman

The previous research on self-esteem among deaf people is, for a number of reasons, inadequate (Guterman, 1982, pp. 1-9). Space does not permit going into all these reasons here, but it is useful to start by discussing one, namely, the failure of the research to explore process.

The research has focused too much on relating self-esteem among deaf individuals to common sense, atheoretical variables and has failed to explore the social-psychological processes explaining the relationships that have been found. Studies by Blanton and Nunnally (1964), Brunschwig (1936), Craig (1965), and Sussman (Note 1) have shown that deaf people and hearing people differ in their average scores on self-esteem, but these studies have had almost nothing to say about the intervening variables that explain this difference. Studies (Meadow, 1979; Sussman, Note 1) also have shown that oral language ability correlates positively with self-esteem, but again these studies did not attempt to examine the explanations for this finding. Thus a defect of most of the research is that it has paid inadequate attention to intervening variables and to testing theoretically relevant hypotheses.

This article is a partial attempt to make up for this defect. It aims to illustrate the kind of theorizing that is necessary to make sense of the existing research. The theorizing here will rely on symbolic interaction theory, as elaborated on by Rosenberg in his recent book (1979). The purpose is to illuminate family relations as they have a direct bearing on the deaf child's self-esteem.

The Principle of Reflected Appraisals

The principle of reflected appraisals says that a person's self-esteem is a function of the attitudes she thinks others hold toward her. If she perceives that significant others have a favorable attitude, she will tend to have high self-esteem. If, on the other hand, she perceives their attitudes to be unfavorable, she will tend to have low self-esteem. These perceptions of other people's attitudes are called reflected appraisals (Rosenberg, 1979, pp. 62-67).

Although useful as a starting point, the principle of reflected appraisals leaves something to be desired. It is not in itself very enlightening to know that individuals with high self-esteem perceive significant others in the family as having high regard for them. For one thing, such a finding does not tell us which is cause and which is effect. Is the perceived regard of others the cause of self-esteem? Or is self-esteem the cause of perceived regard? For another thing, such a finding tells us little about the influence on self-esteem of the actual behaviors and attitudes of other family members. A child's perception of others' attitudes toward him or her reflects not only the actual behavior of family members but also various forces operating to distort that perception.

In addition, the correlation between a child's self-esteem and perception of others' regard may be an artifact of the same procedures being used to measure both sets of variables. Response sets, such as acquiescence and social desirability, may, in part, account for the correlation. It is socially desirable, for example, to respond to items in a measure of self-esteem in a way indicating high self-esteem. Likewise, it is socially desirable to say that your parents like you. So the correlation of high self-esteem with perceived regard of others may simply be an artifact of the tendency to respond to questionnaire items in a socially acceptable manner.

The inference to be drawn from these considerations is that reflected appraisals should be replaced by actual appraisals as the focus of research. We should concentrate less on measures of respondents' perceptions of their parents and more on measures of the parents' actual behavior—in other words, measures based on sources of information that are independent of the child's perceptions.

Relationship between Self-Esteem and Parental Behavior

Looking at the research on self-esteem and parent behavior in this light, what do we find? In the research on deaf people, there appears to be no data relating these two sets of variables to each other. Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) did examine self-esteem in relation to family climate, but the latter variable does not refer to parental attitudes or behavior toward the child.

The situation is not much better when we examine the research on self-esteem among hearing people. Judging from Wylie's (1979) discussion, practically all studies of self-esteem and family variables have based their measures of parent-child relations on the perceptions of the child. An example is Rosenberg's work (1965, 1979; Rosenberg & Simmons, 1972). This work has found that variables tapping parental acceptance of the child are correlated with high self-esteem, but the measures of parental behavior and attitudes are based on the child's perceptions. Coopersmith's study (1967) stands out as an exception. Here the investigator interviewed the mother as well as the child, and the measures of parental behavior were based on information obtained from the mother. But even in this

"We should base our measures of parental behavior on structured observations of parent-child interaction."

study, the measurement was less than ideal. Since the parental measures were based on interviews with the mother, these measures are subject to various biases, especially social desirability. In American society, public opinion has strong feelings about child-rearing procedures; parents, therefore, have a strong incentive to distort replies to questionnaire items about their behavior so as to convey a socially acceptable image of themselves (McCord & McCord, 1961). Hence parental reports of their practices toward their children are suspect. In order to eliminate such sources of invalid measurement, we should base our measures of parental behavior on structured observations of parent-child interaction.

Observable Behaviors

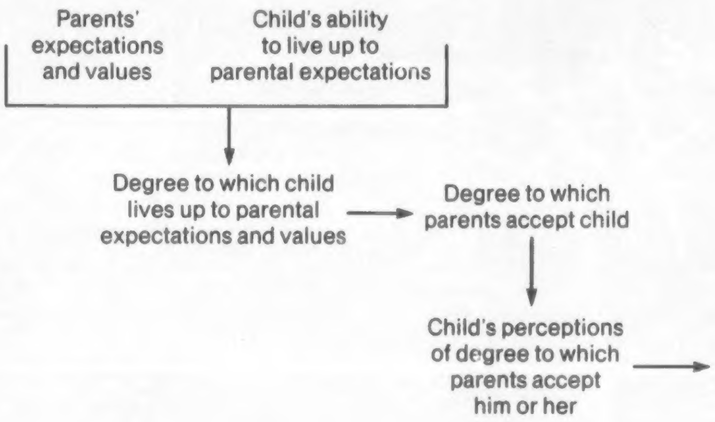
Some aspects of parental behavior are not amenable to observation. We cannot, for example, observe a parent's occupational aspirations for a child. Such aspirations are in the parent's head and are not often manifested in the limited segments of overt behavior observed by an investigator. Nor can we observe disciplinary techniques. Spanking a child does not occur with sufficient frequency to be amenable to reliable observation. One suspects, in fact, that in the presence of an observer, many parents would feel inhibited about disciplining their children. So when dealing with variables pertaining to parental aspirations for the child or disciplinary methods, one does have to base these measures on interviews.

Many aspects of parental behavior are subject to observation. Meadow, Greenberg, Erting, and Carmichael (1981), for example, were able to rate the degree to which the mother and child enjoyed their interaction. Wedell-Monnig and Lumley (1980) rated the degree to which the mother dominated her interaction with her child. A lot of useful variables can be based on direct observation, and, whenever possible, we should use observational measures in preference to measures based on interviews.

Suppose we amend the principle of reflected appraisals by substituting actual appraisals for reflected appraisals. Applying this amended principle to the family, we get the hypothesis that the greater the parental acceptance of the child, the higher the child's self-esteem will tend to be. This hypothesis has been borne out in a number of studies on hearing children. Coopersmith (1967) found that, compared to the mothers of boys with low self-esteem, mothers of boys with high self-esteem viewed their sons as happier, smarter, and more effective; expressed more affection toward their sons; and were apparently more interested in their activities. In fact, in surveying the literature, Wylie (1979) concludes, "There is some limited evidence from these studies that a child's level of self-regard may be associated with the parents' reported level of regard for him and that parental interest and support are associated with the child's level of self-regard."

Parents' Acceptance of the Deaf Child

What is the significance of such evidence for the study of self-esteem among deaf children? Some data suggest that the parents of a deaf child tend to be less accepting than the parents of a hearing child. Using observations of preschool children, Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) found that, compared to mothers of hearing children, mothers of deaf children were less likely to be encouraging and approving toward their children. When interacting with their preschool children, mothers of deaf children, according to Goss (1970), are more likely to exhibit disagreement, tension, and antagonism and are less likely to show solidarity and agreement. If parents of deaf children exhibit lower regard for their chil-



Parents' expectations and values
Child's ability to live up to parental expectations
Degree to which child lives up to parental expectations and values
Degree to which parents accept child
Child's perceptions of degree to which parents accept him or her
Child's self-esteem

Figure 1
Conditions Affecting Child's Self-Esteem
Via Their Effect on Parental Regard for the Child

"One suspects that hearing parents have much higher educational aspirations for their children than do deaf parents."

dren than parents of hearing children, a question arises: Why?

To answer this question, we have to examine some conditions that affect parental acceptance of the child. One of the main conditions (and the thesis of this paper) is whether the child lives up to the expectations and values of the parents. If the parents would like the child to be socially outgoing, good in studies, and docile toward parents, but the child is introverted, mediocre in studies, and rebellious toward the parents, the parents would find it difficult to have high regard for the child. Figure 1 presents these ideas in diagrammatic form.

Parental Expectations and Values

What influences the degree to which the child lives up to parental expectations? Two sets of variables are relevant. One is the nature of the expectations and values the parents have for the child. The second is the child's ability to live up to these expectations and values. These two sets of variables operate together—one can't be understood in isolation from the other.

Parental Views on Scholastic Achievement. Some children perform well in school, others poorly. Taken in isolation, this variable has little power to predict the level of parental acceptance. But when taken together with the degree to which the parents value scholastic performance, the child's performance acquires great power to predict the degree to which he or she is accepted. We would expect parental regard for the child to vary considerably in those families in which parents place great stress on scholastic performance. In such families, the parents should have higher regard for the child if school performance is good than if it is poor. Where the parents place little value on school performance, by contrast, the child's performance probably bears little relationship to parental acceptance.

Meadow (1979) found that self-image correlated with scholastic achievement among deaf children who have hearing parents, but practically not at all among deaf children with deaf parents. Does the above analysis shed any light on this? One suspects that hearing parents have much higher educational aspirations for their children than do deaf parents. We know that deaf individuals do not achieve the occupational status that hearing individuals do (Jacobs, 1974). This appears to be due, in large part, to the lag in deaf children's academic achievement, compared to that of hearing children (Moores, 1978). More likely to be part of the deaf subculture and to know more about deafness, deaf parents are more likely than hearing parents to have realistic expectations about the occupational status their children will achieve, and therefore they are comparatively resigned to their children's lagging behind hearing children in school performance. Because the parents' aspirations for their children are lower, deaf parents' acceptance of their deaf children is probably less dependent on the children's school performance than hearing parents' acceptance of their deaf children. This consideration explains Meadow's (1979) findings that there is a correlation between self-image and school achievement among deaf children who have hearing parents but not among those who have deaf parents. If the theoretical analysis here is correct, the causal diagram in Figure 2 should, in part, account for the link between self-image and scholastic achievement.

Parents' Preferred Mode of Communication. A similar analysis can be done with respect to the parents' expectations about the deaf child's mode of communication. One can hypothesize that the degree to which the parents accept the child is a function of the parents' expectations about the mode of communication the child should learn, together with the child's ability to live up to those expectations. The child's ability to live up to those expectations should, in turn, be correlated with his or her self-esteem. This correlation, moreover, should be reduced once parental acceptance of the child is held constant.

Various experts have historically advocated that the deaf child be

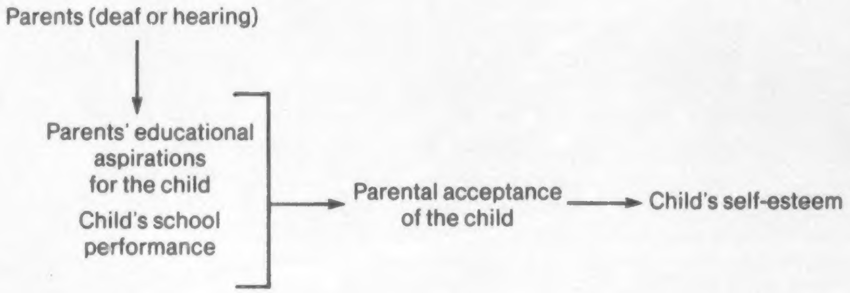

Parents (deaf or hearing)
Parents' educational aspirations for the child
Child's school performance
Parental acceptance of the child
Child's self-esteem

Figure 2
Model Concerning School Performance and Self-Esteem

"The research on language acquisition suggests that those parents who expect their children to master oral communication are probably going to face many frustrations."

taught to communicate orally. This position has changed dramatically in the last 15 years with the increasing acceptance of simultaneous communication (Moores, 1978). Be that as it may, during the period that oralism was dominant, parents experienced many frustrations. They were led to believe that their deaf children would learn to communicate orally, yet their children often failed to do so.

The research on language acquisition suggests that those parents who expect their children to master oral communication are probably going to face many frustrations. It is unrealistic, at least in the case of prelingually deaf children or those who have more severe forms of hearing impairment, for parents to expect the child to gain much proficiency in this mode of communication. Therefore it is plausible to hypothesize that those parents who are oriented to oralism are more likely than those parents who are oriented to American Sign Language (ASL) or simultaneous communication to have their expectations frustrated. Hence they will tend to be less accepting of the child, and the child, in turn, will tend to have low self-esteem. This hypothesis has yet to be tested.

Language is important in yet another way. Parental regard for a child, the argument here runs, is dependent on the child's living up to the values and expectations of the parents. It follows that anything that hinders the child's doing so engenders low self-esteem. One factor bearing on the child's ability to live up to parents' expectations is the degree of communication that exists within the family. If the child and the other family members can't communicate well with each other, then the parents will find it difficult to explain to the child what they expect and what they value. The child, therefore, will have much difficulty conforming to parental expectations.

If deaf children, on the average, are less able to communicate with other family members than hearing children, they should also be less likely to be accepted by other family members. The data are in accord with this prediction. Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) found that mothers of deaf preschool children showed less approval of their children than mothers of hearing children. The mothers of deaf children were also more likely to report greater reliance on spanking and more areas of frustration in child rearing. According to Meadow et al. (1981), several investigations show that the mothers of deaf children are less likely to enjoy their interaction with their children than are the mothers of hearing children. It is plausible to argue that it is the difficulties in communication between deaf child and mother that account for these findings.

If this hypothesis is true, we would expect to find that among families with deaf children, the greater the level of communication between child and parents, the greater the child's ability to live up to the values and expectations of the parents and, therefore, the greater the level of parental acceptance. The data seem to be consistent with this. Meadow et al. (1981), for example, wrote that "a major conclusion of research on preschool children and their hearing mothers is that the quality of mother-child interaction is related to the deaf child's communicative competence." Schlesinger and Meadow (1972) found that the higher the degree of communicative competence among deaf children, the more likely were the children to comply with their mothers' requests and the more likely were the mothers to enjoy their interaction with the child.

Finally, one can hypothesize that families who use ASL or simultaneous communication will have greater levels of communication than families who use oral communication. The data presented by Meadow et al. (1981) generally support this hypothesis.

All of these findings are consistent with the hypothesis that the greater the extent of communication between the deaf child and his or her parents, the more likely he or she is to be accepted by them. The question then arises, What influences the level of communication existing in a given family?

The answer depends on which mode of communication is dominant in the family. If the family is following an oral approach, then the greater the deaf child's lipreading skills and speech abilities, the more communication should exist in the family. If, on the other hand, the family has opted for ASL, then the degree to which both the parents and the child are proficient in manual communication should affect the level of communication in the family. If the parents have opted for simultaneous communication, the proficiency of the child and the parents in a combination of oral and manual language skills should affect the level of communication.

Linking Self-Esteem and Communication. It is by focusing on the extent of communication that we can understand the findings comparing deaf parent/deaf child pairs with hearing parent/deaf child pairs. Meadow (1979) found that among children with relatively poor oral communication skills, the deaf children with deaf parents had higher self-esteem than deaf children with hearing parents. The most plausible interpretation of this finding is simply that if the deaf child has deaf parents, proficiency in oral communication is irrelevant to the amount of communication in the family because both the child and the parents are presumably proficient in manual communication. Therefore the self-esteem of children with deaf parents would not suffer

"If the family is oriented toward ASL or simultaneous communication, we should also be looking at the parents' communication skills. . .and at the manual skills. . .of both the deaf child and the parents."

from the child's deficiency in oral skills. The situation is different for deaf children with good oral abilities. For such children, there was no relationship between the child's self-image and whether the parents were deaf or hearing. What is going on here presumably is that if the child has good oral skills, then the degree of communication with hearing parents is about as high as that with deaf parents. So in both kinds of families, the children would be living up to the values of the parents, and therefore, in both kinds the level of self-esteem would be about the same.

The model proposed here to link communication and self-esteem is summarized in Figure 3. Previous research has focused on the child's communication competence (to the neglect of parents' competence) and on oral skills (to the neglect of manual skills).[1] The model here is proposing something new. It says that if the family is oriented toward ASL or simultaneous communication, we should also be looking at the parents' communication skills (not only the child's) and at the manual skills (and not only the oral skills) of both the deaf child and the parents.

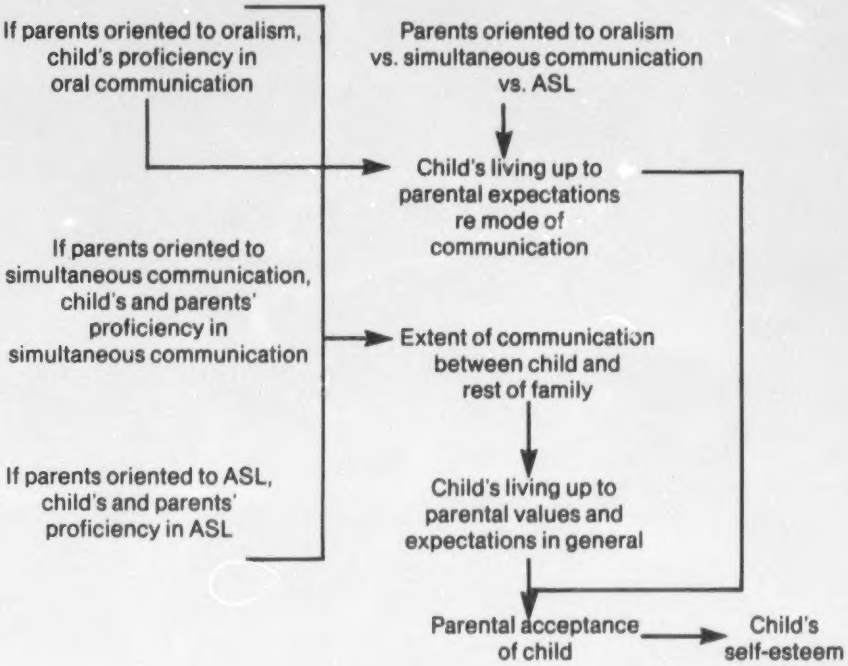

If parents oriented to oralism, child's proficiency in oral communication
If parents oriented to simultaneous communication, child's and parents' proficiency in simultaneous communication
If parents oriented to ASL, child's and parents' proficiency in ASL
Parents oriented to oralism vs. simultaneous communication vs. ASL
Child's living up to parental expectations re mode of communication
Extent of communication between child and rest of family
Child's living up to parental values and expectations in general
Parental acceptance of child
Child's self-esteem

Figure 3
Communication in the Family and Self-Esteem

Summary

In conclusion, this paper has used symbolic interaction theory in order to interpret the research on family variables as they bear on the self-esteem of the deaf child. Underlying the discussion was the postulate that the more the parents accept the child, the higher the child's self-esteem will tend to be. The discussion focused on what influences parental acceptance. The key influence, it was argued, is the expectations and values of the parents in conjunction with the child's ability to live up to these expectations and values. These variables were then used to illuminate the way in which self-esteem is linked to scholastic achievement and to communication in the home.

The analysis here was intended to illustrate the kind of theorizing that is needed in order to understand the existing data. But such theorizing is also needed before we collect data in the future. Without it, we will only be piling up one finding after another without really enlarging our understanding of self-esteem among deaf children.

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[1] Sussman's research (Note 1) is an exception. He measured the manual communication skills of his respondents as well as their oral skills.

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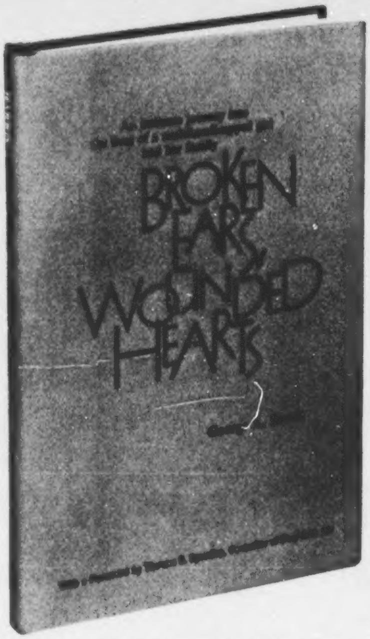

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